

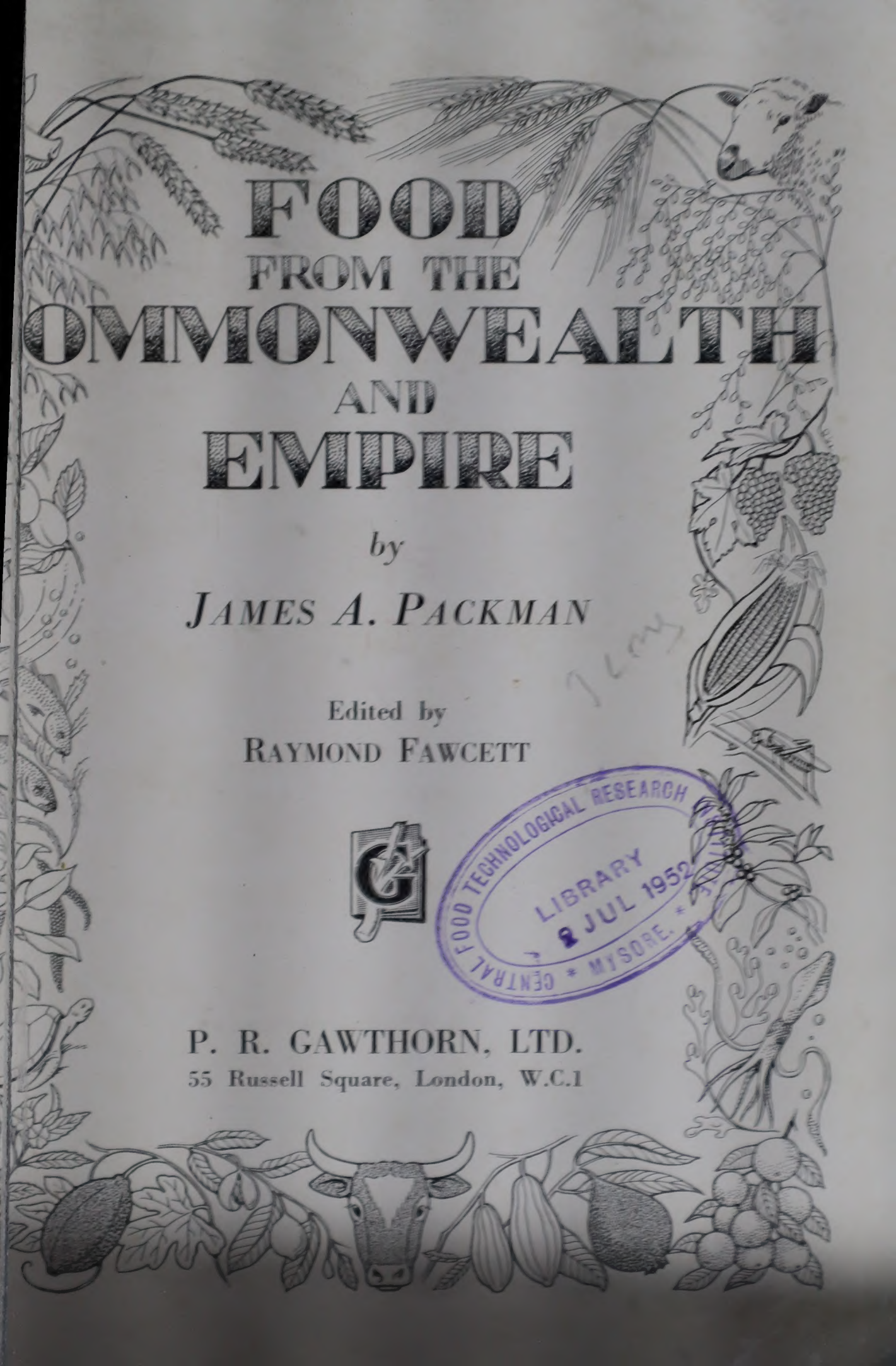
F8,3
N51
1938

CFTRI-MYSORE



1938

Food from the co.



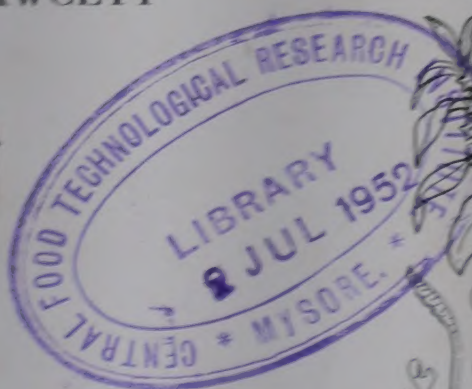
FOOD FROM THE COMMONWEALTH AND EMPIRE

by

JAMES A. PACKMAN

Edited by

RAYMOND FAWCETT



P. R. GAWTHORN, LTD.

55 Russell Square, London, W.C.1

First published in 1951

1938 ✓

F8,3

N 51

CFTRI-MYSORE



1938

Food from the co.

IF YOU are hungry, you will make great exertions, if necessary, to get food; if your children are hungry, you may feel an even greater urgency. If a friend is starving, you will probably exert yourself to relieve his distress. But if you hear that some millions of Indians or Chinese are in danger of death from malnutrition, the problem is so vast and so distant, that unless you have some official responsibility, you probably soon forget all about it.

*Bertrand Russell in "Unpopular Essays":
by permission of George Allen & Unwin Ltd.*

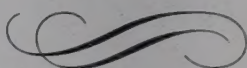


A WORLD well fed, with economic prosperity and full employment, is the only basis of world peace. In the next 25 years we would need to double food production to keep up with the growing population. Food is the greatest of all trades. Of all the people who are working in the world today, 65 per cent. are producing food. Can we produce sufficient? My own view is that . . . we can double world food production in less than 25 years.

*Lord Boyd-Orr in an address to the
Council for Education in World Citizenship.*

CONTENTS

	Page
Part One : <u>THE STAPLE FOODS</u>	5
Part Two : <u>THE SECONDARY FOODS</u>	37
Part Three : <u>LOCAL DIETS & PLANS FOR THE FUTURE</u> ...	69



ILLUSTRATIONS IN FULL COLOUR

<u>RICE</u> : Paddyfield near Kandy, Ceylon ...	Frontispiece
<u>BEEF</u> : Calf at Experimental Farm, Canada ...	Facing page 20
<u>GROUNDNUTS</u> : Accra market, Gold Coast ... " "	36
<u>SUGAR</u> : Cut cane in transport, Jamaica ... " "	53
<u>BANANAS</u> : Cutting the stem, Jamaica ... " "	53
<u>FISH</u> : Fisherman with decorated craft, Malaya " "	68
<u>WINE</u> : Grapes in Cape Province, South Africa " "	85





Part One

THE STAPLE FOODS

FOOD and drink are the first requirements for a healthy and happy world. Today they are all too short for every one to live well. Within the British Commonwealth and Empire are enormous agricultural resources ; from Polar ice to the steaming forests of the Equator every kind of climate and vegetation can be found, and almost every kind of product and foodstuff used by Man. Some countries are rich and contribute much, every one—however poor—adds something to the world's larder.

How does the Commonwealth and Empire make this mighty contribution and of what does it consist ? So far-reaching is the answer that it can best be given in three parts—and here is the first of them. It tells of the outstanding staple foods—of the great grain crops, of meat and of dairy produce ; and as the wonderful story of wheat, cattle and sheep is so closely bound up with the growth of the big Dominions, it is fitting to begin with them.

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire



IN the earliest days of Mankind, long before history, wheat and barley were grown. Among fragments of pottery and bone dating back 5,000 years before the Birth of Christ, seed grains have been found which we can recognize. Wheat has a double honour; it was the first crop in the world and now it is the greatest.

Most of the world's wheat is eaten in the form of bread which is an essential part of the diet of the entire Western world. Some is made into a hard paste and becomes macaroni or spaghetti but, except in Italy, the amount so used is not large. Bread made of wheaten flour is very nutritious and it is now being introduced into Africa and other parts of the world where it was unknown before except to Europeans. As the peoples of these countries become more accustomed to using wheat flour, we may expect the demand for wheat to become even greater than it is already.

Wheat is ground into flour before use; in the old days this was done between millstones turned by animals or by windmills; today it is carried out by big power-driven roller mills. In this process the outer skins of the grain were rejected, giving a pure white flour. But in recent years, in order to make the utmost use of the grain, the skin is often milled with the rest. Flour made in this way produces brown bread, lighter or darker in colour according to the degree of extraction, or elimination, of the outer skins. These skins contain valuable vitamins so that brown bread is often held to be more nourishing than white. In many countries, but not generally in Britain, other coarser grains such as rye and barley are mixed with wheat and this imparts an even darker colour to the bread which, when it is made mainly of rye (as in northern parts of Europe) is called black bread.

Wheat can be cultivated almost anywhere except in the damp tropics. It thrives best in a temperate climate—the same type of climate, in fact, that is best suited to the white races. So it is not surprising that the great wheatlands today outside Europe should be those, in the main, in which Europeans have settled. But modern science has developed many different varieties of wheat which can be grown well where this was never thought possible, both in areas far north where the summer is very short and in countries like Australia where the heat is intense and the rainfall small. Such discoveries add much to the real wealth of the world, for they enable more and more territories to grow foodstuffs of which its peoples can never have too much.

When Julius Caesar came to Britain and Rome was master of all Europe, Egypt was her granary. We know nothing about America at *that* time, but we do know that fifteen hundred years later, when Columbus



This strange-looking wheat was grown from seed over 6,000 years old which was found during excavations at a tomb in the Valley of the Kings in Egypt. Each bearded head has several ears.



In some parts of Canada wheat-farmers still use horses to haul their machines (top). But on most prairie-farms tractors are employed, though not all are driven by the farmer's 12-year-old son as is this one (bottom) which is towing a giant combine harvester.

Photos - National Film Board of Canada



Combine harvester at work in a typical strip-farming field in Alberta. This machine, which threshes the grain simultaneously, has largely supplanted the old-fashioned method

(Photo: National Film Board of Canada)

first bringing news of the new continent to Europe, it was not wheat but maize that grew by the inhabitants. Today the United States, Argentina and Canada between produce a large part of the world's wheat supply and, in addition to feeding the people, export extensively to Britain and to other countries. Canada ranks second United States; although her production is less, her population is so much smaller has a wheat surplus which can be sold abroad. In 1948 she produced 101 million tons in 1942 she reached, with a good harvest, the record yield of nearly 15 million tons.

The story of wheat in Canada is the story of her growth from a colony settlement to a powerful agricultural and commercial Dominion. Before 1800 were perhaps 20,000 Europeans (English and French) in Canada. Farming was not in Quebec and Upper Canada (now the province of Ontario). The rest was left to the hunter and fur-trapper. In 1812 the Red River settlement, intended to develop the inland areas bordered by the Hudson Bay, showed the way for development of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta—the Prairie Provinces. The first wheat sown was not successful and the settlement itself was a failure to be the evidence of the possibilities of these new areas to the West.

As the evidence of the possibilities of these new areas to the West developed, the value of the land became known. But transport presented a difficulty. Although Winnipeg and the country east of it had a water system and the Great Lakes, it was not until the Canadian Pacific Railway was built in 1885 that the prairie lands could be properly worked and could attract farmers to grow wheat. The C.P.R. linked the Atlantic with the Pacific in Vancouver in 1871 miles.

The Wheat Pioneers Came to Canada

Starting in the tiny province of Nova Scotia, the line runs through New Brunswick over Quebec, across Ontario and thence passes through the three Prairie Provinces. It is shaped rather like a blunt wedge with one straight edge lying on the American border. The railway cuts through the lower part of them, between one and two hundred from the American border and roughly parallel to it. Kicking Horse Pass, through Rocky Mountains, is well over 5,000 feet above sea level, higher than the highest train in the British Isles. Once past the Rockies the railway drops south across faster River to Vancouver. At Winnipeg, nearly 1,000 miles westward of Quebec, great arms stretch upwards, one northwards through Manitoba to Churchill, a port on inner shore of Hudson Bay—the other transfixing the central areas of Saskatchewan and Alberta, with the large cities of Saskatoon and Edmonton.

The usual method of comparing railway freight systems is by ton-miles. Each ton is multiplied by the number of miles that load is carried and the total of all added together gives the figure.

In 1944—a peak year—total for Canada's two systems, C.P.R. and Canadian National says, was 66 thousand million miles. The size of this figure is not only that heavy loads are carried but that they must be carried long distances.

With the C.P.R. there came settlers. In the Prairie Provinces all of them arrived between 1890 and 1913—men from every part of Europe—England, Scotland, Ireland, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Scandinavia, Poland, the Ukraine—most of them farmers or land workers, hardy and all eager to establish farms, grow more and more to sell and become richer than they could have done in their crowded countries. Already Canadian farmers were building large agricultural implements, driven by six to eight horses, to enable them to deal with the vast unbroken areas of land and a good strain of seed—"Red"—was available. The stage was set for wheat.

In 1875, before the railway came, the wheat area centred around Winnipeg was about 15,000 acres. In Ontario and Quebec over two million acres were harvested, for these provinces could move their grain by water. By 1901 the wheat belt had

From the prairie silos, where it is stored, Canadian wheat is taken by train to the grain ports on the Great Lakes. Here a "stab" is made in a car-load for inspection.

Photo: Reprinted from Board of Canada.



Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

spread across Manitoba; five years later it reached across Southern Saskatchewan; and by 1916 Alberta was well covered. A few years ago these three Provinces had between them 27 million acres of wheat fields and the remainder of Canada only about one million altogether. The total acreage under wheat alone is just half the whole area of Great Britain.

Out of Canada's 12.9 million people, the Prairie Provinces have only 2½ million, including women and children. Each agricultural worker must cultivate an area much bigger than he would or could do in Britain. To do this he must work, not in small fields, but in huge virgin tracts of land and use machines much larger than those to which we are accustomed. Giant ploughs drawn by high-powered tractors, wide seed drills, and combine harvesters which reap, thresh, bind the straw and deliver the grain ready for immediate transportation enable him to develop his prairies to the best advantage.

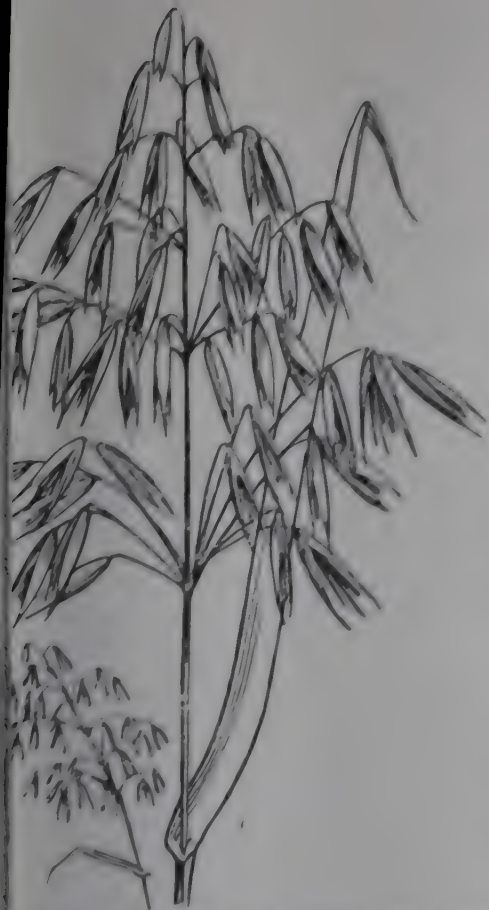
Considerably more than three quarters of the crop is exported, Britain still being, as in the past, Canada's best customer, although many other countries also buy from her. With Britain there was a special agreement whereby during the four years from August 1946 to July 1950, Canada should supply 600 million bushels of wheat at an agreed price. Subsequently the 4-year International Wheat Agreement came into force under which Britain's purchases of Canadian wheat averaged some 120 million bushels annually.

The price of wheat naturally alters from year to year according to the amount available. The harvest varies very greatly; other crops may be grown in place of wheat, there may be unexpected outbreaks of disease, or simply the weather, by prolonged frosts or drought, may prove unfavourable. But this fluctuation in output is to some extent taken care of by the Canadian Wheat Pool which is like a vast co-operative society controlling the market. This organization has built huge elevators or silos on the prairies

At Port Arthur, on Lake Superior, wheat cascades out of an elevator spout into the hold of the grain boat in which it will travel eastwards along the Great Lakes Waterways.

Photo: National Film Board of Canada





and in the wheat centres capable of storing many million bushels, so that the surplus of a good year can be carried over and sold the next.

Fortunately wheat is easily transported by rail and steamer and can conveniently be handled by machinery which pumps it by suction, as if it were a liquid, through large pipes from the hold of a ship and discharges it in similar fashion into waiting trucks or into the storage silos. It can also, by modern methods of control, be safely and easily stored. This is another reason why wheat is of such importance in our world today and why the people of Europe are able to depend so much on countries overseas.

Oats, though less valuable than wheat in terms of money, are extensively grown in Canada, mainly as food for stock (cattle and pigs). Oats have the advantage that they will do well where wheat would not—in a damp climate—and are good on newly-broken grassland. Over the whole of Canada the acreage under oats is generally rather less than half that devoted to wheat. They are an important crop in Quebec, which now grows little wheat, and also in the smaller provinces on the Atlantic seaboard. Oats are a bulky crop and the cost of transport is high in proportion to the selling price so that it is not a good crop to export, and although Britain uses it as oatmeal, she does not require much. Altogether Canada produced about 317 million bushels in 1949-50. But since the number of her livestock has increased greatly in recent years, she needs all the oats and barley she can produce for her own meat and dairy industries; and the export of these coarse grains is not now permitted by the Dominion Board of Agriculture.

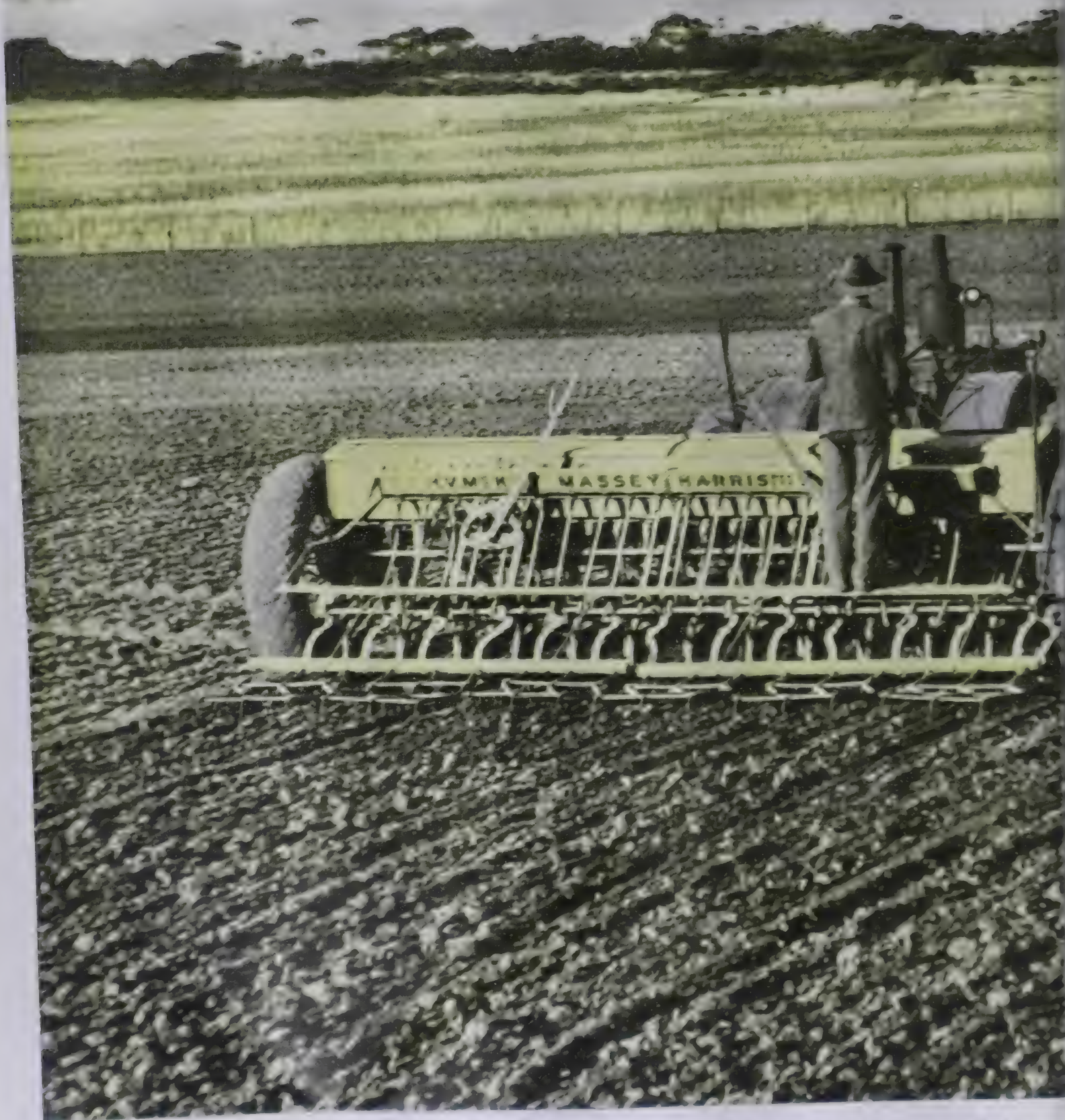
Barley is another grain which dates from prehistoric times. Its most interesting use is in the form of malt—barley steeped in water until it begins to sprout and then dried in a kiln. This is the base from which beer is brewed. Whisky also is distilled from barley. But both these require a special type and the major part of world production, including all Canadian barley, goes for stock feeding, to cattle and especially bacon pigs.

Barley will grow anywhere that wheat will and here again the Prairie Provinces, which are the heart of Canadian agriculture, lead heavily.

Australia's Wheatlands

Within the Commonwealth, Australia is the second biggest grower of grain crops. On a large scale they are a comparatively recent development, for earlier in her history Australia depended on wool for her overseas trade. Early settlement followed the narrow coastal belt of level ground and was cut off from the vast interior by the Great Dividing Range. When the new colonists first entered the wide plateaux beyond these hills, they were only seeking pastures for the great flocks which were, at that time, their main wealth. Later on it was found that these districts, although much drier than the coastal belt, were better suited to the growing of wheat. By the time the railway had crossed the Divide, large scale wheat production became a commercial proposition.





Mechanization is now general in Australian farming, locally manufactured agricultural implements being produced to a yearly value of £6,600,000. Here, on a wheat farm in Western Australia, pneumatic tyred.

Courtesy of the



24-row, 49-tine Australian-made cultivating drills are at work. They are fitted with small seed boxes and have smoothing harrows behind, whose tines are thrown clear of obstructions on the stump-jump principle.

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

In 1950 nearly 8½ million acres were under wheat, almost half the total area under crop cultivation. New South Wales and Victoria each contributed more than 2 million acres, followed by South Australia and Western Australia—a striking change from a hundred years ago when South Australia, with its greater area of cultivated land along its seaboard, was the principal producer.

The problem of finding suitable varieties was a serious one, for the standard European types were not successful. Whereas in Canada the search was for a quick-ripening type for a short summer, in Australia the need was to find a wheat which would require less rainfall than normal and would withstand higher temperatures. At the same time it must ripen for harvest at the right time to suit the regular rainfall. In recent years "Nabawa" in New South Wales and South Australia, "Free Gallipoli" in Victoria and "Beneubbin" in Western Australia have become the favourites. Since Australia is in the southern hemisphere, her seasons are the reverse of those in Britain: Christmas falls in the summer and December is the month of harvest.

The main wheat area is the Riverina District of New South Wales, the plains between the Murray and Darling Rivers. Mixed wheat and sheep farms, running up to 1,000 or even 1,600 acres are now common. Wherever the rainfall is between 10 and 25 inches wheat can be grown in the normal way, but in many districts that have less than 10 inches of rainfall in the growing period, wheat and other crops must be cultivated by the "dry farming" method. The land is ploughed in winter (July-August) and allowed

Cyprus is among those British Colonies which produce crops of wheat and barley. At harvest time, women work in the fields wielding the old-fashioned sickle.

to lie fallow for six weeks—the rainy season. The fallow is then broken up with a cultivator and the surface kept loose to check evaporation. Thus the water which has fallen before the seed is planted is stored in the soil and used during the growing period (May-October). Large and successful crops are produced in Western Australia in this way. The best yields are from South Australia where the climatic conditions are most suitable although the land available is relatively small.

Australia's total production of wheat averages 150 million bushels, though over 210 million bushels have been achieved in a good season. Of these she herself consumes only some 40 million bushels, leaving an average of 110 million to be exported. Part of this is sold as flour already milled: during 1950 the United Kingdom purchased 100,000 tons of it and about a million tons of wheat as well. Although Australia's total production is less than that of the United States or Canada, the low figure for her own requirements makes her a great exporting country in the world's wheat market. This is, of course, possible because her total population (only 7½ million people) is small and it immediately



Giant Machines for the Australian Farmer

suggests that the farmer and worker on the land must be able to cultivate much larger areas than would be the case in Europe.

This was done by the adoption of machinery in which Australia was a pioneer. The stump-jump plough, which throws the ploughshares clear of obstructions such as the stumps of felled trees, enables land to be worked without the heavy labour and cost of grubbing up the roots. The stripper, which gathers the heads of the corn and threshes them and, above all, the huge combine harvesters have revolutionized grain production. And the Australian farmer likes size; 20-furrow ploughs, harrows 24 feet wide, and harvesters that cut a swath 10 to 18 feet across, enable a couple of men to prepare, sow and harvest up to 300 acres. By such means wheat can be grown plentifully and cheaply even though the yield per acre may often be low.

As you might expect, oats and barley are also good Australian crops but since the Commonwealth is also a leading stock-raising country most of these, if not all, go to feed her own herds, either as grain and hay or as green fodder. Barley is grown mainly in South Australia on the peninsula west of Adelaide. In recent years the production of barley has slowly increased but its total acreage is still only a fraction of that devoted to wheat, oats and hay. A small amount of high quality is exported.

NEW ZEALAND, though now principally a country of meat and dairy production, grows a fair wheat crop in the Canterbury and North Otago areas of the South Island. But it is not sufficient for her own needs and she imports some 5 million bushels from Australia. This was not always so, for seventy or eighty years ago, before the full development of the Australian grain industry, it was New Zealand who exported to her. Since then, however, New Zealand has turned more and more to stock-raising and dairy farming and her wheat production has been assisted by protection; a guaranteed price is paid and each process from the grain to the loaf of bread is carried out under Government supervision at prices which are officially laid down. In the same region, oats are a fairly extensive crop, raised mainly for the benefit of horses and the racing business.

Both New Zealand and Australia are deficient in phosphates which are needed by the soil for successful crops. But the Pacific islands of Nauru and Ocean Island, which are not too far away from transport by sea, have tremendous deposits which should last for a century. The rights in these are owned by Britain, Australia and New Zealand jointly in the ratio 42 : 42 : 16 and they share the annual output in the same proportion. This supplies the requirements of both Australia and New Zealand.

India & Pakistan Need Their Own Wheat

You might not, perhaps, think that the sub-continent of India was a wheat growing area but there are districts within that immense land which, in spite of its hot climate, lie high and have a suitable rainfall at the right season. Parts of the Punjab, (divided between India and Pakistan), Sind (Pakistan), and the Uttar Union (India),—and also the lowlands of the North West Frontier province of Pakistan—between them cultivate 26 million acres and produce 11 million tons. Little of this is exported since the people of the sub-continent—more than 425 million with an annual increase estimated at 6 million—need all this and more. The ground is dug by a simple plough drawn by bullocks in the cold season, the grain being sown in September or October and harvested in April or May. The agricultural departments of the states of India are continually experimenting with seed and both India and Pakistan grow with success a cross with the Australian variety called “Federation”.

If we compare the total Indian wheat crop with that grown by Canada or Australia



In the past the East African native farmer has been slow to realize the value of manuring his fields to ensure the continuance of good crops. Today he is beginning to profit by European example, as this fine crop of maize in Kenya shows.

comprovised. Without either natural or artificial manures the fields are improvable since the original soil is itself of low fertility.

Again, the peasant ploughs with bullocks, often ill-nourished and weak, has no mechanical aids. But since he has no grow fodder for the beasts he employs in ploughing, carrying and drawing water, he can grow even less foodstuff for his family. He is shortly poor, normally in debt to the village moneylender, and quite unable to take proper advantage of the improvements both in methods and machinery which might be employed. The feeding of her vast population is one of India's hardest problems and all too often a bad season brings famine to immense areas.

On the other hand, India has had from the earliest times a system of irrigation by means of which her big rivers bring water, through many channels, to the fields. The former British Government spent many millions of pounds on improving and extending irrigation and in building huge dams and barrages (such as the Lloyd Barrage in the Godavari) which hold back the water of the rivers and make it possible to divert it for the most profitable cultivation. Today about 35 million acres are irrigated—about 15% of the total.

we notice at once that the yield is very low. That is not altogether due to climate. All Indian agriculture suffers from low production. One of the main reasons is generally agreed to be that the densely populated individual farmer has only a small piece of ground owing to the system of inheritance laid down by the Hindu religion followed by the Moslems and the Muslims religion. Thus a farmer may have only a few acres which are not enough to support his needs.

The peasants are illiterate and unsuspicious in good engineering, following traditions which are always the best. The custom, dried cow-dung which might be used to manure the fields, is traditional—almost sacred—used in



Golden cobs of maize freshly harvested in Southern Rhodesia which is in the centre of Africa's "maize belt." This important cereal, known by various names in different countries, is the most widely-grown grain crop in Africa, among whose native peoples it is a staple food.



Cutting millet at Palitana in India where the various species of this highly nutritious grain supply principal food. Mixed with wheat-flour it can be made into bread.

Photo: Government of India.

farmed—and a large part of this is used for rice growing. Irrigation is carried out particularly in Sind, the Uttar Union and the Punjab. In some areas a crop of 5 (2 to 2½ million tons) is also grown and sold for export.

At one time India exported much wheat to Britain and this was particularly valuable since it arrived at a different time from the supplies from Canada. But for years more and more wheat flour has been used by the Indians themselves and surplus she did export was mainly to neighbouring Eastern countries. Karachi, capital city and principal seaport of Pakistan, was the centre for this export trade in wheat, the port from which most of it was shipped. But since the war of 1939-1945, supplies of rice have been low and India and Pakistan are likely to need to import wheat and other grains over and above what they can grow. It seems probable that, as more rice is cultivated, the wheat crop will decrease, although the Indian Government is making great efforts to increase production of all kinds of foodstuffs.

In the Colonial Empire, Cyprus—part of the ancient Mediterranean cultivation—formerly produced crops of wheat and barley for export; today Nicosia has a small surplus.

Whilst large areas of South Africa, particularly near Basutoland, and some regions of European settlement in Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika grow crops of wheat and oats, the greatest grain crop in Africa is Maize. It is an ideal crop for tropical and semi-tropical countries because it can stand heavy rainfall and enjoys moderate cold summer nights. Certain varieties of maize known as "sweet corn" can be raised in Britain, if the summer is a good one. It grows on a cob or stalk, six to ten inches long and closely covered with large golden grains. Freshly picked, boiled



markable result of
 lining the waters of
 Indus River in Paki-
 stan by means of the
 Indus Barrage at
 Sukkur. Parched mud-
 flats at Johi Pat (right)
 are transformed into
 vast sheet of flourish-
 ing wheat (below) after
 functioning of the
 irrigation canals.



and eaten with
 butter or cream it
 is sweet and nutri-
 tious, though
 rather starchy and
 is a favourite food
 with Americans.
 Another variety is
 used as "pop-
 corn." The grains
 are separated and
 dried, and when
 put over the fire
 in a shovel or a
 special basket, the
 tiny drop of
 moisture left
 inside the grain
 bursts quite
 loudly. The result
 is like the break-
 fast food known

"puffed rice" but larger and much sweeter. Both sweet corn and pop-corn are
 of the flat-grained, soft type of maize.

Another kind, known as "Flint Maize," is rounder, very hard and mainly composed
 of starch. Maize goes by many other names; in Britain its old name was Indian
 corn since it was first introduced by Columbus who found it grown by the natives
 (whom he thought were Indians) in America. Later it became well known to the Eliza-
 bethan seamen and settlers in Guiana as they depended on supplies grown by the
 inhabitants. Americans today call it just "corn"; in South Africa it is always known
 as "mealies." In Britain, maize is mainly used for feeding livestock and poultry, but
 in both Africa and India it is one of the principal articles of diet of the people of those
 countries.

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

In South Africa "males" are grown mostly in the Transvaal and Orange Free State and far more on the Eastern side than on the Western. The areas of production lie around Basutoland which itself raises a large crop. They are grown by the white farmers but extensively by every native who has any land, and under favourable conditions an acre can produce nearly two tons of grain, the best for South Africa is only an eighth of this; in a poor season much less still.

Africa's "maize belt" runs right up the East and centre of the continent Southern and Northern Rhodesia, Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika, largest parts of all except South Africa, all grow big crops but there is none, or very little, for export. Even in parts of West Africa some maize is grown—in Sierra Leone, Nigeria. There, where families live on as little as 5 acres, the best land is reserved for maize.

In South Africa and wherever there are large herds of cattle, much of the crop (particularly by European farmers) is intended for their use and the crop is harvested in all, being cut down and fed to the animals as "green fodder" or it

even be turned into field as it stands to the native. Maize is one of the staple articles and from it the natives prepare a wine.

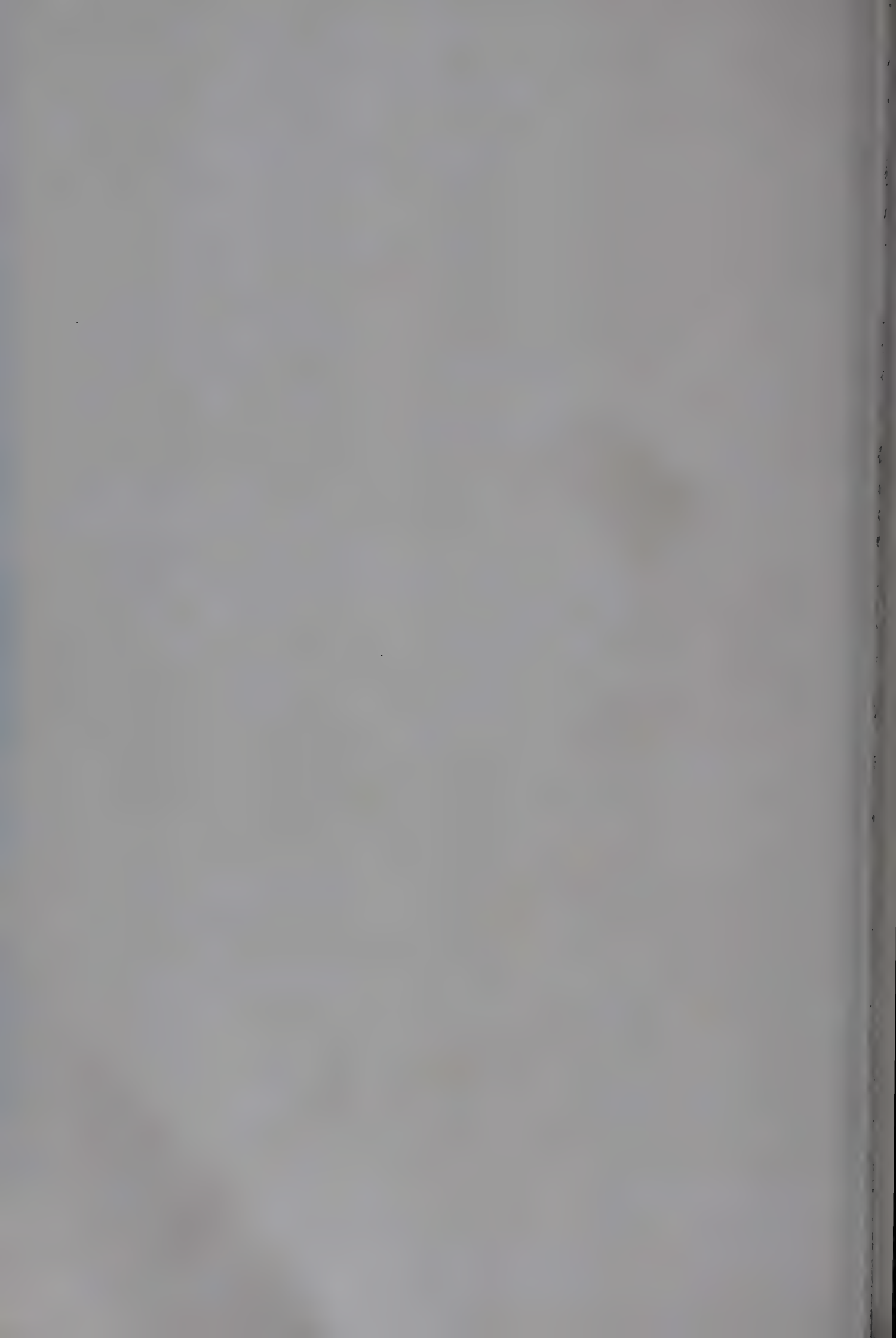
Maize was a native plant of America and we have seen it was introduced to America and probably first grown in Mexico. It is another grain the Millet (or sorghum)—botanically a different plant which is native to Africa.



Feeding sorghum bags after it has been threshed at Peak Downs Central Queensland. 1949 harvest was the fruits of the joint venture between the Queensland Government and the Brisbane Food Corporation. The grow sorghum on a large scale by modernized methods.



EEF is among Canada's major contributions to world food supplies; there are more than 20 million cattle in the Dominion. Government experts carry out research into breeding at the Experimental Farm at Ottawa, where this sturdy bull calf was born.



immense value to the Africans because it will stand prolonged drought and therefore can be grown where there is not sufficient rainfall for maize. There are many kinds of millet, some with tiny seeds and some with large. In South Africa it is generally known as Kafir Corn. As early as 1600 an account of this grain was written in England:—

“This Millet is a very excellent grain, hath a good taste and is wholesome to eat, it is sweet in your mouth but gnasheth in your teeth, which cometh of the stone wherewith they grind it.”

That was recorded by an early traveller to the land then known as Guinea, the present-day Gold Coast. He goes on to say that the inhabitants used the straw to cover their houses.

INDIA likewise grows a large harvest of millet (over 9½ million tons) and has several improved varieties such as “Jowar” and “Bagri.” It is grown extensively throughout most of the country in the hot areas when rainfall is insufficient for other crops, and in the Deccan and in Madras state is the staple food. Although it is not an important export to Europe, millet is nevertheless one of the most useful kinds of grain to the countries where it is grown since it supplies a necessary part of the local diet in areas where other crops would not grow so satisfactorily. Only in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan is the production of millet so great that it can be exported elsewhere; large quantities of “Dura,” the North African type, are carried by rail into Egypt and some thence exported to Europe.

Both maize and millet are mainly grown by native peasants generally using primitive and arduous methods. Their individual pieces of land are very small and the work is done by hand. In Africa, the ground is prepared with a hoe, often by women, or among many of the native African tribes the growing of crops—tilling the soil, seeding and harvesting the grain—is part of the women’s work as well as the subsequent preparation for cooking and eating. In many territories, particularly West Africa, large tracts of country are unoccupied and for many generations the African peasant has been in the habit of clearing a patch for cultivation by burning the grass, bushes and trees, and then growing all he can on the little part so cleared. But after two or three years he has exhausted the fertility of his field; he does not manure it and he has not the means to cultivate it properly. Accordingly, when the land will produce no more he moves on and clears another patch, allowing the first to run wild into jungle again. After perhaps ten years the original patch is restored and is ready to be burned off once more. But this is very wasteful and is only possible where there are few people living in wide areas of jungle. It would be impossible in India where there is no spare fertile land to be left uncultivated for years.



Scientific Help for the Native Farmer

So if the production of maize and millet and other native crops, which are badly needed, is to be increased, the peasant must be shown how to cultivate and manure his fields and how to grow different crops in different years so that the same field can be kept in production, as it is in Britain, and new land cleared for turning into more and



The Indian peasant farmer works his few acres with only the most slender resources. His plough is a simple wooden affair; his draught animals are bullocks, to feed which he must set aside land that might well be given to increasing his crop of wheat, rice or millet.

grain from the same amount of land. Experiments are also carried out from time to time with large scale planting and reaping of millet and other crops, using big machines, sometimes freshly recovered from the bush, and fully mechanized methods. Such machines are not used in Africa, but their employment even in tropical countries is steadily increasing during the last few years large numbers of Africans have been trained to work

As the individual farmer or worker could never afford to buy such equipment if he had the land, schemes of this kind are generally organized and paid for by Governments. In 1949, for example, Britain's Colonial Office, through its Colonial Research Committee, spent nearly £2,000 in investigating suitable large-scale methods by which millet grain to be ground into flour in big quantities. Before the war supply can be increased, every detail must be thought out and its possibilities examined.

So far we have been thinking about maize mainly in India and Africa, but it is grown very extensively in Canada and Australia too, by the same large-scale methods that we have seen used for wheat and barley. The difference is that in these countries maize is almost entirely employed for stock feeding; much of the beef and pork which is sent to us from these two Dominions is fattened upon the maize which they produce. A small part, it is true, does come to us in quite a different form. Maize of the hard

more farms. This has been agreed to be the policy and the Governments of the various countries concerned are endeavouring through their Departments of Agriculture, to increase the knowledge of individual peasants and enable him to get more on his land.

But this brings up other problems, principally that of soil erosion if too much land, in countries where there have at some seasons tremendous downpours of rain, is cleared of trees and bush which protect it. Also certain crops, particularly maize, take a great deal of the fertility of the soil which must be replaced. Hence in East Africa close attention is paid to raising varieties of maize which will yield

ade can be separated from its golden skin and the white inside ground
an extremely fine powder, like flour, which is highly nutritious.
his product, which we know as cornflour, is used for puddings and
anemanges.

Yet another grain crop is Rye. This is widely grown on the
older and poorer soils of Northern Europe, for it is a hardy plant and
is free from diseases which attack wheat. There it is made into cheap
bread (black bread, since it is dark), either alone or mixed with wheat.

But within the Commonwealth and Empire, Canada is the only
country which produces a large crop. It is remarkable that in recent
years the area cultivated and the amount grown have nearly doubled
and Canada now exports much more than she used to; today Italy,
France and Belgium are her chief customers. Britain has never
required much more rye than she grows herself, but since the war of
1939-45 many other countries in Europe are very short of it and must
buy from overseas. Small quantities of rye are also grown in South
Africa and Australia. Rye straw, being hard and stiff, is used for padding.

There could hardly be a greater contrast to the spreading fields of golden
grain than the paddy fields of the East. Yet Rice is a plant akin to wheat though
it spends most of its life growing in water. China, India and South-East Asia generally

in the broad, well-irrigated Krian paddy area of Perak, a Malay woman takes nursery seedlings for
transplanting in the field. As part of a determined effort to expand rice production in the Federation,
the Government grants loans to poor growers and guarantees prices.





Burrinjuck Dam on the Murrumbidgee River in New South Wales provides the water which irrigates ricefields as well as orchards, vines and other crops. The Australians use modern machinery to cultivate and harvest their rice.

Photo: Government

produce most of the world's rice. The seeds are sown very thickly and the young plants are then transplanted by hand and set in rows in the fields in which they are to grow. But before or just after this transplanting these fields are flooded to a depth of a few feet. The rice remains like this until harvest time but whilst they are still growing in the water the plants must be kept free from weeds. So the peasants who cultivate these fields, many of them women, do most of their work standing in mud and water in intense heat which rice needs to grow properly.

You will see, therefore, that rice flourishes in all countries that have a high temperature and either heavy tropical rains or big rivers that can be used to irrigate the fields in the proper season. In many regions where rice is used for food, the hills are terraced to retain the water naturally and here immense artificial swamps have been created by terracing and levelling sections of the hillsides, a task that has taken the hard labour of many generations.

It is difficult for us to realize the tremendous importance of rice in the world. Before the war of 1939-45 about 90 million tons of it were grown. But its true importance is that many Asiatic peoples eat very little else and that there is nothing which can take its place. Consequently the lives of hundreds of millions of people depend on the rice harvest and if there is a bad harvest and it is short, millions will go underfed and starve. The results of a rice famine are probably more far-reaching than those of any other shortage; but the causes of famine are often wars and trouble of various kinds which prevent the proper cultivation year by year of the crop on which they all depend.

During the war of 1939-45 most of the great rice-growing areas in the Far East were battlefields or occupied by the Japanese. We do not know exactly how much rice was produced during those years but we do know that the supply was very short and that

What a Rice Famine Means in the East

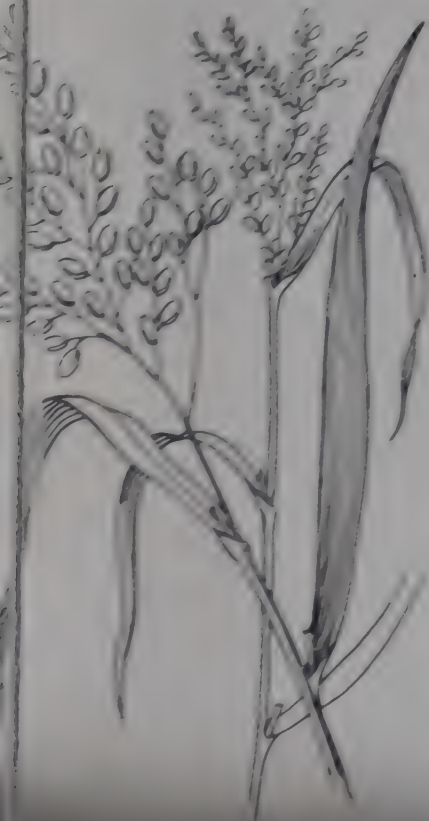
Malaya were suffering severely from insufficient food. Since it was impossible to get rice from the lands held by the Japanese, output had fallen to a bare minimum and there were no stocks in Burma, Indo-China and Siam, the principal Eastern countries which normally had a large surplus for export. To make matters worse, even after the war the Japanese both in Burma and Indo-China were afflicted with serious political troubles and civil war which hindered the resumption of their former exports. Thus in places like Hong Kong, Singapore and some of the Malay States, which grew very little rice for themselves and depended entirely on imports of rice from overseas, it was difficult to get rice sufficient, and strict rationing was, and continued after the war to be enforced at about half a pound daily.

BUT the situation rapidly improved and by 1950 the supply of rice, whilst yet far beneath the need, was increasing. Thus whilst before the war the principal growing countries exported over 5 million tons, in 1945 this was down to less than one sixth. By 1950 tonnage had risen again to over 3 million or considerably more than half the pre-war figure. But to have only half the food supply to which you are accustomed is a very serious matter. It explains why, during and after the war, hardly any rice came to this country so that instead of rice pudding appearing only too often on your dinner tables, it is something of a rarity.

The outstanding rice countries of the Commonwealth and Empire are India, Pakistan, Malaya and Ceylon. Vast areas of India around the deltas of the great rivers, especially on the eastern side on the Bengal coast, are under cultivation. In fact the rice belt stretches practically all round the coastal areas of India. The yield is low and although in her best recent year she grew over 30 million tons, all this and more is consumed by her own people. In Malaya, although some of the States into which the country is divided grew enough rice to export, others were given over so much to rubber and tin that little food production took place. Determined efforts, therefore, are now being made by the Government to improve the irrigation of existing ricefields, to restore those that were allowed to fall into disuse during the war and to develop new areas. Ceylon, who needs much for herself and for the big Indian population employed on the plantations, suffered from a long and severe drought in 1945-46 which reduced the rice crop to one-half; but since then the amount harvested has substantially increased.

Wherever Indians are employed, supplies of rice must be available and in consequence it is grown for local consumption in East Africa, particularly in Tanganyika who can export to her neighbours. Rice is also raised on the low-lying areas of Sierra Leone and Nigeria, in the deltas of the many rivers, the biggest of which is the Niger. A very interesting experiment is to be made in The Gambia. Near Bathurst is an enormous swamp, 30,000 acres in extent, at the mouth of the Gambia river. This was useless, until in 1949 work was begun to reclaim and clear it and make it available for growing crops of which rice will be one of the largest.

Other parts of the Commonwealth and Empire





have been found to be land suitable for the thousand miles from the other side of the Atlantic grown in the West Indies. Trinidad grows a little of British Guiana, on the mainland, large estates in rice instead of sugar export, mainly to the United States and through the airway with that grown in India rising in importance.

After which Britain suggested nearly 2,000,000 provided, for most of increased drainage and sanitation of waste areas, a living for many of the thousands of agricultural workers from over-extended islands such as Jamaica who were encouraged to settle there. For in the main the islands of the West Indies have a higher population than can support so that it is desirable to move some new land product elsewhere in the intertropical zone like British Guiana and British Honduras and then across West Indians to make it.

There is one more thing concerning new development in the world that must be of increasing importance. It has been agreed by the Commonwealth countries when it is given by which they decide to the same form of New South Wales by the agreement of Empire East of Britain, a number of Canada. The first the United Kingdom, the United States of America, and a third



Leading Commonwealth exporter of New Zealand. Here a veterinary inspector the Dominion's sold stores and the returned in London from the refrigerator.

Source: *Commonwealth of Nations*

the Overseas Meat Trade Began

to create a lake from which the water is led by canals over a wide area. The plans are planned and construction has already begun. From a few sheep previously occupied this district, the number of people living there has risen to 15,000. Unlike the peasants in the East, the Australians use mechanical tools and harvest the crops. As a result they grow more than double their harvest and can help to supply other countries.

The significance of the success of this Australian project is that it has shown that crops like rice and sugar, which were formerly thought of as being unsuitable for large-scale methods was formerly thought to be impossible, can in fact be grown in Australia, provided the climate is suitable, as in Australia, and water can be supplied. The project, which is still young, may very well change the future of great areas of land now little used.

FOUR the ages meat has been one of Man's principal foods. But the amount which the average person eats today is much less than in the past. When we think of the quantities of meat which were once eaten, we are amazed at the quantities of meat which were once eaten. Of course, such supplies of choice meats were only for the rich. The poor were lucky if they had any at all occasionally. Today, in Britain at least, everyone eats meat regularly so that the amount required is very large. In the United Kingdom has for long been the leading importer of meat.

For years now, strict rationing has restricted British imports of meat to a figure which has never seemed possible. Before the war of 1939-45 we imported 11½ million hundredweight of beef, 8½ million hundredweight of mutton, over a million hundredweight of pork and 7 million hundredweight of bacon and ham. All this of course was in addition to what we produced ourselves. From Commonwealth countries there have been mainly

In Australia's biggest meat cannery at Lakes Creek, Rockhampton, in Queensland, beef from the freezers is handled by the boners. Most of the Commonwealth's export of tinned meat is sent to Britain.

Photo: Government of Australia



Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

encouragement for countries like Australia and New Zealand to produce more than they required for their own use. But the discovery that meat could be kept long periods frozen and the invention of refrigerating machinery to enable it to remain frozen whilst being transported altered the whole perspective of our sheep farming and made it possible for Canada, Australia and New Zealand to develop their pastoral industries on a vast scale.

REFRIGERATION came into general use for imported meat about 70 years ago. But freezing injured both the texture and the flavour and frozen meat was as inferior. In the early 1930's it was found that meat could be satisfactorily transported even from Australia, in conditions of less intense cold. Meat preserved in this way known as chilled meat, retained its original flavour and quality better and was popular in Britain. Consequently chilled meat now exceeds frozen meat in importance for export. The invention of canning provided a new branch of the meat trade, enabled the individual household (or the traveller) to have its own little supply, but frozen meat must be kept frozen in big refrigerators if it is to last. Moreover, all kinds of meat, like fish, are more attractive cooked and canned than in the raw state.

War-time conditions gave tremendous impetus to the canned meat trade. This form of packing is most suited to the abnormal requirements which then arise. A considerable movement of men is possible only if food can be had in an easily transported and easily usable form. During war-time many millions were moved about, by land, sea, and whole armies were kept (as in the North African campaign), in areas which depended entirely upon tinned and preserved food. Even after the war the demand for canned products because these were so conveniently transported and distributed. Thus the world's total export trade in canned meat during the war in 1943 was more than that of 1938 before the war; and in 1946 it was over four times though since then it has declined.

But meat is only one side of the cattle industry. Almost as valuable as the dairy products, milk, butter and cheese. It is a mark of the three great countries of the Commonwealth—Canada, Australia and New Zealand—from which Britain gets the bulk of her supplies that in all three of them huge dairy industries, with vast exports, go side by side with the production of meat. This is not so in Argentina where we normally buy the majority of our requirements of beef. This country specialises in the rearing of beef cattle, on the spacious grass plains of South America, on a system that could not be applied to dairy farming.

Rise and Fall in the Pig Population

Dairy farming, and also the rearing of cattle and pigs, depend much upon a supply of grain, hay and other feedstuffs, so you will appreciate that it is not by accident that the big crop-producing countries are also the big stock-rearing countries. Canada, with over 40 million cattle, 3 million sheep and between 5 and 6 million pigs, and Ontario, provinces which specialise in mixed farming, lead in dairy production. The Prairie Provinces ranking second; but the Prairie Provinces are the principal producers of beef cattle. In the days before settlement these provinces were grasslands with vast herds of buffalo. With the coming of the white man the buffalo were destroyed. Enough of the grassland remains to pasture enormous herds of beef cattle. In the most westerly of the Prairies, cattle range freely over wide areas, being only occa-



Pig rearing in the Commonwealth and Empire —bacon hogs at an Ontario farm (above) and feeding time at the Samaru piggery in Nigeria (left), one of several run by the Government.

Two photos: National Film Board of Canada.

rounded up for branding or sale.

Many of the lands so given up to ranch cattle are poor pasture since they are not sufficiently fertile to be worth cultivating for crops. This is satisfactory for rearing and keeping cattle but is not good enough to produce fat animals for the meat trade. Hence before slaughter they are driven down to the corn and maize lands where they

are fatted for the market. While the slaughtering and meat packing trades in Canada are so extensive as in America, they are very large and represent a major industry. A good example of the effect of the war is seen in the numbers of pigs kept by the countries. The pig is not particular as to its food but to make good bacon of the kind required by the trade, special foodstuffs and above all grain are needed. Before the war Britain had a huge pig population, more in fact than Denmark. But with the shortage of transport it was impossible to import feeding stuffs which are so essential. It was easier to import the finished article which took up so much less shipping space. Thus in 1937 the United Kingdom had 4½ million pigs, in 1947 just over 1½ million. But Canada, which had only 4 million in 1937, increased hers to over 8 million in 1947. They have since declined to about 5½ million but even so she has today nearly twice as many as Britain. Most of the bacon Britain ate before the war was Danish.



Fig. 7. A massive flock of sheep grazing in a field. Most flocks number about 1,000 animals, the most popular breeds being the

Canada Doubles her Dried Milk Output

During the war supplies from this source stopped and Canada sent most of the bacon we ate. After the war she continued to supply us although Britain's shortage of dollars made transactions difficult.

Canada is the foremost producer of milk, butter and cheese within the Commonwealth and Empire and again her production has expanded since before the war to meet the increased demands of other countries. Milk in its fluid state, of course, cannot be kept for any time or sent long distances. But churned into butter, or manufactured as cheese, its nutritive value is retained and transport by sea is easy except through the tropics, when refrigerated ships must be used. In common with most countries, Canada has increased the amount of milk she drinks though not to the extent that Britain has. But she has also doubled her output of dried milk and milk products, which can be readily exported. One form in which Canadians consume more milk than we do is in ice-cream. The manufacture of this leaped in the years 1949-50 when Canada, in spite of her much smaller population, ate twenty-two times as much as did Britain before the war.

Australia is, traditionally, the land of sheep—about 108 million of them. Before the days of refrigeration they were kept only for their wool and thousands were slaughtered only to be boiled down for tallow, since they could be put to no other profitable use. The frozen meat trade altered this, though even today, since the pastures of Australia are better for wool than mutton, shearing is more important than slaughtering. But in New Zealand the reverse is the case.

With only about one-third of Australia's sheep population, this Dominion's exports of mutton are between four to five times as great. As you might expect, both countries eat more mutton per head than any in the world, the average for an Australian being 72 lbs. per year, for a New Zealander a little less. Britain's average is between 24 and 25 lbs. That we can have as much as this is mainly due to the supplies we receive from New Zealand. An interesting experiment during the war was the export from Australia of dehydrated mutton—that is, meat from which all the water had been extracted and which therefore occupied very little shipping space. Considerable amounts were sent overseas in this way but except in times of emergency it is not likely to be popular. The same process is also applied to vegetables.

Australia, and to a smaller extent New Zealand, have big herds of beef cattle. Queensland with 6 million head is the cattle country—the wide pastures of the Darling Downs where the herds roam loose over ranches the size of an English county in the bare and hot North. There are rivers—though in the dry season they may shrink to a few waterholes. The cattle are tended on horseback often by the blackfellows (the



Cream receivers at a dairy farm near Hamilton, New Zealand, checking and weighing cream separated from milk before going to the butter factory. $4\frac{3}{4}$ million cwt. of dairy produce are sent overseas each year.

Photo : Government of New Zealand

Food from the Commonwealth and En

aborigines) who are good herdsmen. They are rounded up and driven, hundreds of miles over the stock routes, to the slaughtering and refrigerating on the coast from which the canned or frozen meat can be exported by sea. Journey "on the hoof" with uncertain feed and water is bad for the condition of animals and reduces their value as meat by the time they reach the slaughter. Quality is of less importance in the canning trade which has now become one of the leading industries.

In dairy farming both New South Wales and Victoria run Queensland. The three States between them have over 4 million dairy cattle and Australia has for long been exported to Britain (in 1950, 40,000 tons were sent); Australia has the largest butter factory in the world. Cheese is also made and exported in far less quantities than by either Canada or New Zealand.

New Zealand Leads in Dairy Farming

New Zealand can fairly claim to be the greatest dairy country in the world. Favourable climate, good pastures and plenty of water make for high production, but the New Zealander has used his advantages to the full both by maintaining quality and by specializing in butter and cheese-making so as to combine quality with high output. During the war Britain relied principally upon her supplies since Denmark and other European countries were closed to us and we could not do so. In planning her farming industry New Zealand always had in mind that Britain was to be her best customer and she set out, therefore, to produce meat, butter and cheese of the type and quality most suited to British tastes and which it was certain she should always need from her.

But you must not think that all New Zealand's foodstuffs come to Britain. Australia and New Zealand send large quantities of their canned meat to India, and the many islands of the Pacific. Both countries trade extensively with the East, supplying cereals, butter and meat. Among the principal imports which New Zealand receives from India in return are the jute sacks in which her wheat and flour are packed.

So far we have looked at the three foremost meat and dairy producing countries but cattle are almost universally raised and sheep are only a little less so. The breed of cows varies considerably from the far northern areas to the south of Africa or the islands of the Pacific, but there are few places where there is no milk. Within the Commonwealth and Empire, India and Africa claim attention.

INDIA has a vast, unnumbered population of cattle which is estimated at over 100 million in the world. But since the Hindu religion regards the cow as sacred, neither she can be killed nor can beef be eaten. Moreover, in the countryside—and in the towns—of her population live by agriculture—the bullock or water buffalo is the working animal, hauling loads, ploughing and drawing water from wells. As a result, the number of cattle is far larger than can profitably be supported. Their productivity is low and where the very fodder for the working animals is scarce, the cattle themselves are of poor quality and underfed, so that their yield of milk is small. The only contribution which the cattle of India make to world trade is in hides, of which India is a great exporter. But as you have seen, her huge stock of cattle is not the true wealth of the country and do not make their possible contribution to the supply of food. Sheep, on the other hand, are widespread throughout India.



...g cattle on Roseleaf Station in New South Wales. After they have been rounded up, the poss-
ible Australian herds sometimes have to be driven hundreds of miles over the back roads to the coast.
Photo: Government of Australia.



Shovelling damp Antrycide into the tray on which it will be taken to the drying oven. The discovery of this synthetic drug may prove to be of considerable help in the fight against the Tsetse fly.

grass lands—as in the adjoining native territories of Basutoland and Bechuanaland—are seriously over-grazed through being made to carry more cattle than they can support. Over-grazing is one of the causes of soil erosion so that the results are cumulative—as the lands are exhausted they become less and less able to provide fodder and the condition of the animals becomes worse.

IN the tropical colonial territories of East and West Africa, another and even more serious trouble arises from the Tsetse fly. This fly, which sucks blood, carries the germ of “sleeping sickness” (*Trypanosomiasis*) and though the species which attack men and beasts are different, the effects of the disease are equally grave, causing illness, inability to work and death. The disease can be carried rapidly from one infected person or animal to another; not only cattle but wild animals, even birds and reptiles, indeed almost anything which attracts the fly to suck its blood can harbour the disease. Apart from its ravages upon the natives, the disease borne by Tsetse fly has made the economic keeping of cattle almost impossible over vast areas of tropical Africa. This means, in addition, that the crops in these territories lack the natural manure which cattle supply.

To counter this menace, enormous efforts have been made to check the disease and the only way so far has been to destroy the fly which carries it. Two things make this possible—that the fly breeds in the shadow of undergrowth by rivers, marshes and wet places, and that it cannot travel more than a mile. Hence if an area can be cleaned of undergrowth along all its streams and the fly once be eradicated, it can be protected by clearing a safety belt a mile wide all round it. This, of course, means that

estimated to total 50 million. But here again number is no index to quality, although their meat and wool are invaluable to the peasants.

In Africa a distinction must be made between the Union of South Africa and the tropical colonial territories. In the former, farming is organized by Europeans who have been in occupation of the land for a long time. Accordingly they rear stock by modern methods and have paid close attention to improving the breeds by crossing English strains with the native Afrikander cattle. Nevertheless, although her cattle and sheep populations are high the Union does not produce much more than is required for her own needs since she has never attempted to make either meat or dairy produce a prominent export industry.

Among the natives, cattle are regarded as a sign of wealth; a man's worth is judged by the number of cattle he owns and at marriage and on other ceremonial occasions, he may have to pay so many head of cattle. Consequently he tends to keep far more cattle than he should, irrespective of their condition and whether or not they give any return. Merely to possess them is his idea of riches. There is a real problem in that the

New Weapons in the Fight to Beat Disease

every road or stream entering the area must be cleared for a mile on either side before the protected region is reached. If this is done—and although it takes a tremendous amount of work, it *has* been done extensively in recent years—the protected area is safe for men and beasts and progress in farming can be made.

The biggest experiment of the kind made so far is in what is known as the Anchau Corridor in Northern Nigeria. Here the people lived in scattered clearings surrounded by bush over an expanse too wide to be cleared of Tsetse fly. About one-third of the

inhabitants suffered from sleeping sickness. First they were persuaded to live together in villages instead of in scattered holdings. Then another tract of country roughly 70 miles long by 10 miles wide was cleared and protected as described. The old town of Anchau, which was both overcrowded and insanitary, was cleaned up and remodelled on modern hygienic lines, new villages were built, and the people from a wide area were moved into these 712 Tsetse-free square miles. The experiment is a new one but it appears to be success-



A native compound in the slums of Anchau, in Nigeria, before the town was cleaned up in an effort to stamp out disease carried by the Tsetse fly (see text). The 600 inhabitants were moved into clean, well-planned compounds in a new town—Takalafiya (right).

ful and is typical of what is being done in West Africa, although the Eastern side presents different problems.

Another step forward was the opening in Nigeria, in 1951, of the West African Institute for Trypanosomiasis Research which will undertake further investigations into all aspects of human and animal *trypanosomiasis* including study of the insect carriers and experiments with the trypanocidal drugs.

The fight to conquer disease in Africa is of the highest importance.





A poultry farm in New Zealand, where egg production makes about 18 dozen available to each of the inhabitants every year. As in other countries, the eggs are graded and stamped for marketing.

Photo: Government of New Zealand

It is a vast country. Niger alone is more than seven times the size of England, but over one-third of it has been useless for cattle. It has been a poor country because of the immense obstacles which Nature has put in the way of Man. If only the handicaps can be overcome, Africa may yet be able to contribute on an immense scale to the true wealth of the world. This, as you will realize, cannot be done quickly but is one of the many attempts made to improve natural conditions in Africa may prove to be of first importance.

It is hard to imagine an English farm without its army of hens in the farmyard; but perhaps it is even more difficult to realize that much the same chickens and eggs are to be found in every farm throughout

the world. The great farming countries, of course, produce eggs of high grade by scientific methods and in vast quantities. The problem of preserving them or sending them long distances, particularly acute during wartime, led to a big development of egg processing in the form of egg powder or dried eggs, in both Canada and Australia, to replace the huge supplies formerly exported by China. Britain alone imports well over a million hundredweight annually of these products. This is a formidable figure but it would probably appear quite trifling if we were able to know the number of eggs produced in Africa, India or the countries of the East. In general chickens and ducks are reared in small quantities by everybody who can do so for their own use.

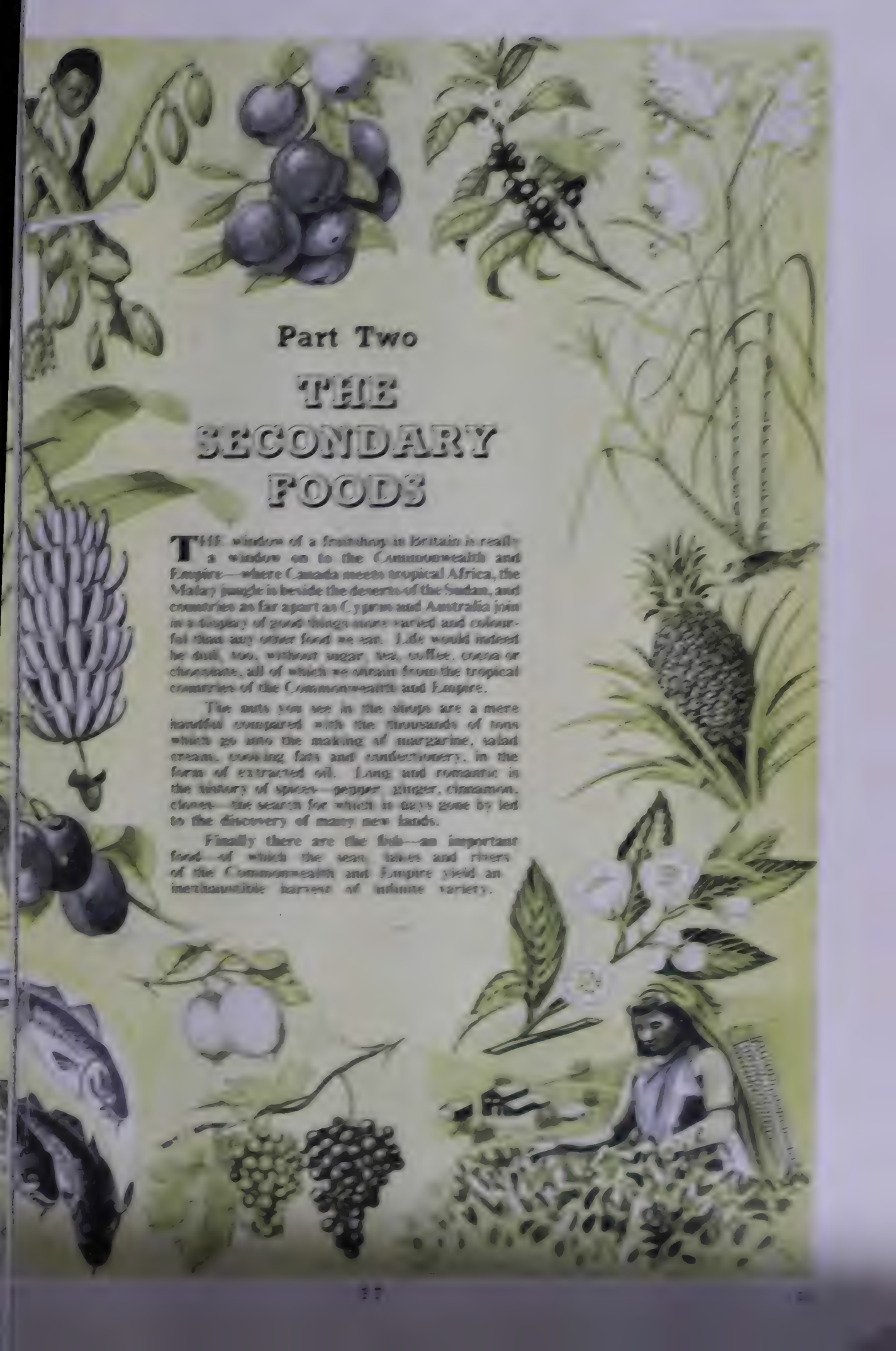
An exception was the scheme launched in The Gambia in West Africa by Britain's Colonial Development Corporation in 1949. Here the aim was to create a large-scale industry which would produce some 20 million eggs and a million pounds of dressed poultry a year. 10,000 acres of land were cleared to grow feeding stuffs upon which the success of the project depended, but after two seasons' experience this was found to be an impossibility; fowl typhoid seriously depleted the breeding and laying stocks, and drastic modification of the whole scheme became essential.



GROUNDNUTS, rich in edible oil, are the principal food of millions of people in tropical countries. India is one of the largest growers, and enormous quantities are produced in Britain's West African territories. Here are the nuts on sale at a Gold Coast market.

Photo: Captain Julius F. Friend.

Facing page 36



Part Two

THE SECONDARY FOODS

THE window of a farmhouse in Britain is really a window on to the Commonwealth and Empire—where Canada meets tropical Africa, the Malay jungle is beside the deserts of the Sudan, and countries as far apart as Cyprus and Australia join in a display of good things more varied and colourful than any other food we eat. Life would indeed be dull, too, without sugar, tea, coffee, cocoa or chocolate, all of which we obtain from the tropical countries of the Commonwealth and Empire.

The nuts you see in the shops are a mere handful compared with the thousands of tons which go into the making of margarine, salad cream, cooking fats and confectionery, in the form of extracted oil. Long and romantic is the history of spices—pepper, ginger, cinnamon, cloves—the search for which in days gone by led to the discovery of many new lands.

Finally there are the fish—an important food—of which the sea, lakes and rivers of the Commonwealth and Empire yield an inexhaustible harvest of infinite variety.

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

ALTHOUGH Fruit has furnished a necessary part of Mankind's food since earliest times, it is only recently that we have been able to grow the kinds other than our own. Tropical fruits in particular, with their special sweetness, had to wait for the age of quick steam transport, refrigeration, and all the modern method of preserving by canning, before they could be enjoyed by one, rich and poor.

Soft fruits, which include not only raspberries, strawberries and the like, apples, pears, peaches, and plums, grow best in the temperate zone and are throughout Europe, Canada and the United States. Citrus fruits, the orange, grapefruit and lime, require a warmer semi-tropical to tropical climate; they grow in the northern Mediterranean region but also in ever lower latitudes. In homes of the banana and the pineapple flourish. Grapes and figs are a Mediterranean though they have found their way to other continents. Dates are a product of desert areas.

Within the Commonwealth and Empire, Canada and Australia are the producers of soft fruits. But so extraordinary is the range of climate in the latter of Australia that whilst one part grows the familiar fruits of the North, producing equally well oranges and lemons, whilst yet another bears bananas, and even stranger tropical fruit which seem out of place in a country farming men. Indeed, Australia can grow almost everything.

Western Ontario and the outer states of Canada—Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Quebec on the Atlantic face, and British Columbia on the Pacific—bear immense crops of soft fruit. How huge that is can be judged from recent average production—apples, 291,000 tons, pears, 17,000 tons, plums, 18,000 tons, peaches, 10,000 tons—the last a rapidly increasing crop. Comparable figures for Australia show 14,000 tons of apples, 84,000 tons of pears (mainly from Victoria), 20,000 tons of plums, 48,000 tons of peaches. In Britain, double this number of apples is grown, and for commercial purposes no peaches. Both New Zealand and the Union of South Africa grow soft fruit crops, smaller in quantity but high in quality. Both shorter sea voyage fruit from South Africa appears regularly on the London market.

BEFORE the war, the United Kingdom ate on an average 24 lbs. of apples yearly, and today the amount is about the same, though we now rely on our own harvest. Part of our crop is a special apple for cider-making. We used to import a large export crop from the two big exporting Dominions, though this was not only of what they themselves consumed as fresh fruit. Australia also sent apples to South Africa to her neighbour Southern Rhodesia. Pears are less often sent as fresh fruit, for most of them are canned in syrup. Britain takes 6½ million fresh pears from South Africa, but new methods of refrigeration are being used to transport so that Australia may increase her export of this fruit. Plums, also, are used locally, largely for jam making, but again South Africa is alone in exporting fresh fruit, usually in the higher grades that repay packing with care.

Canada, Australia, South Africa and New Zealand all grow peaches on a large scale. They are perhaps the most popular of canned fruit and most of the world's supply. It is this, of course, which accounts for the great production, the packing and refrigeration on a large scale have made transport of fresh peaches between 1940 and 1950, when Canada and South Africa doubled their production.

Citrus fruits are the most suitable for export, as they do not perish so quickly.

will continue to open after The West Indies, South Australia and to a smaller extent all grow citrus fruit overseas markets. South Australia in oranges against 98,000 tons) but with on lemons (15,000 cwt). On the other hand, this produces 16,000 tons but, eight times as much as twenty years ago. Australia's yield, though not small, is still small. The increase in the growing popularity of grapefruit and its juice, pomoranges and lemons, a large industry is developing in Southern Rhodesia. The West Indies (particularly Jamaica and Barbados) have found a valuable market for oranges and lemons in Britain, which in 1950



A young apple orchard in southern British Columbia (below), a Canadian province which specialises in this crop. Before shipment, the fruit is graded on sorting tables (above), sized, packed and placed in cold storage.

(Source: Canadian National Film Board)



Fruit from the Tropics

contracted to purchase 5,000 tons of processed orange juice each year for the following years. Another important fruit is the lime, similar to the lemon but requiring rather less heat. Its juice was known long ago as a remedy for scurvy in seamen, a disease caused by the absence of fresh vegetables on the long cruises under sail. Captain Cook was an early advocate of lime juice, and in Nelson's time it was part of the regular shops' stock in the Royal Navy. Its use as a summer drink is now world-wide.

The West Indies' major contribution to the world's fresh fruit is the banana.

Jamaica produces most, followed by British Honduras, British Guiana, St. Lucia and Grenada. It is a fruit that is grown extensively on small scattered plantations for local use, though cultivation on a larger scale. Jamaica averaged 300,000 tons yearly export before the war, most of which came to Britain, the rest going to Canada. But the banana tree is subject to two serious diseases, Panama disease and Spot. The first is uncontrollable except by destroying the tree. It has attacked Jamaica severely that the crops for 1947 and 1948 were estimated at one-third and one-half respectively of normal. This, coupled with shortage of shipping space, has reduced the island's exports to a low level, mainly to Canada. Jamaica is experimenting with a new, in some ways inferior, variety known as Lacatan, which is immune to this disease; and it is hoped by 1952 the crop may be enough for Jamaica bananas to reappear in Britain.

Meanwhile, across the

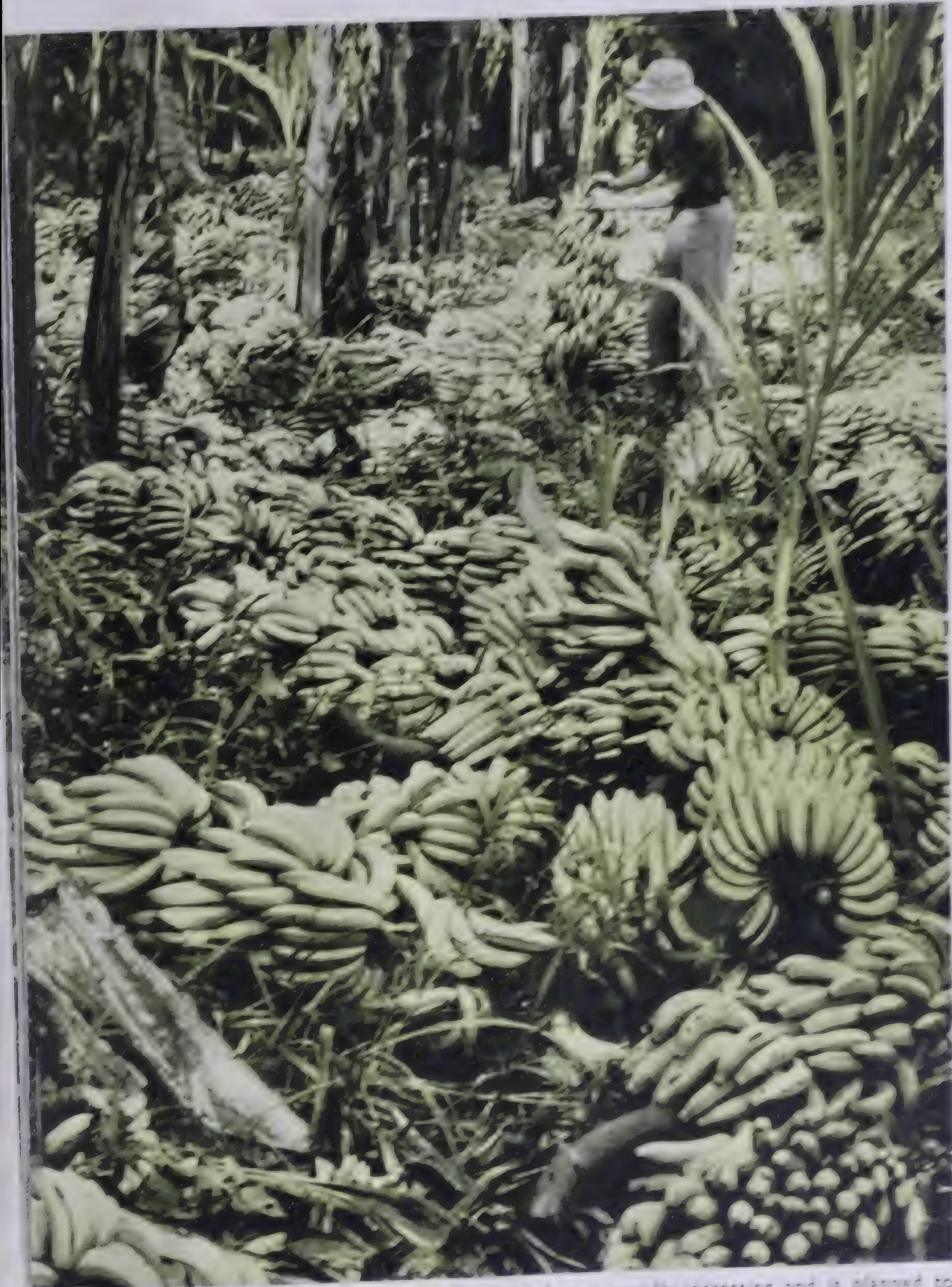
Atlantic, a new grower has appeared.

West Africa—the Cameroons Development Corporation. Britain's bananas since 1945 have come from this source, and here also double the quantity is expected by 1952. Australia, which can always produce the unexpected, grows bananas in Queensland for herself and for New Zealand. In the Pacific region the New Zealanders supply a quota of her requirements. A New Zealand firm recently established an industry in Tonga to extract passion fruit and pineapple.

Also from the tropics comes the pineapple whose fate, again, is most often decided. After the Pacific seaboard of the United States of America, Malaya was the



Bananas being taken aboard ship at Port Antonio, Jamaica. Cooled holds and special ventilation are necessary to keep the fruit in good condition in transit, and unloading is done mechanically to reduce handling.



banana forest in the Cameroons whence export of the fruit is rapidly increasing and is planned to reach 8,000,000 stems in 1952. — Production is sponsored by the Cameroons Development Corporation through which Britain has vested the former German plantations in the people of this Trust Territory.

the principal home of the tinned pineapple, grown mainly by immigrant Chinese in Johore. When the country was occupied by the Japanese in 1942, the industry came to a standstill. Production has begun again and there are canneries in Johore and Singapore; it is hoped that exports will improve. Australia produces about 4,000 tons of tinned pineapples yearly (but she has seven times as many peaches). Natal, Kenya and West Africa also grow pineapples on a smaller scale for local consumption; in Kenya, a new cannery near Nairobi will export the tinned fruit to Britain and other markets.

The trade in tinned and dried fruit has, of course, revolutionized the whole aspect of fruit-growing on a large scale, since it does away with those problems of storage and transport which make the movement of soft fruit from one country to another very difficult. Most soft fruits are suitable for canning, though they differ in popularity. There is also a regular trade in dried fruit, prunes and apricots being most in demand. But canning has become a steadily expanding industry in the fruit-growing countries and this greatly increases the call for sugar. After the war of 1939-45, only the United States of America could produce tinned fruit on a great scale, greater in fact than ever before. It may be many years before Britain can have the quantity of tinned fruit, as from such fruits as she herself produces, to which she was once accustomed.



At an orange farm near Port Elizabeth, South Africa, the fruit is harvested by pickers wearing gloves and using special clippers (above). After grading and wrapping, the oranges are packed in boxes, sealed by an automatic nailer (right) and dispatched to the cooling station (bottom right) to await shipment overseas.

FIGS and dates, valuable as they are for food, are not exported in significant quantity from any Commonwealth or Empire country; India and the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan grow a date crop, part of which is sold abroad, and dried figs are exported from Cyprus. Figs also, as a dessert luxury, are grown in South Africa and in Queensland.

Another vigorous industry closely connected with soft and citrus fruit-growing is jam and marmalade manufacture. Both are to the white man's taste—so that Britain and New Zealand are important. The introduction of jam packed in tins—instead of in glass jars—has made transport easier and thus extended the range of the industry's export trade.

The grape vine, which in Europe was native to the Mediterranean basin, grows us grapes, raisins, currants and wine. Vineyards have reached their highest perfection in France; but with European settlement overseas, they have been established in South Africa and Australia. The vine is also cultivated in Ontario, Canada, and other parts of N. America where it was found growing by the earliest explorers. Cyprus, of course, has had its vineyards from the earliest times. Fresh grapes, excellent as they are, are normally

Wine from Commonwealth Vineyards

consumed locally and not transported, though from time to time South African grapes plentiful and cheap on the London market. Export trade mainly consists of grapes dried in the sun, which become raisins, sultanas or currants according to the special type of vine grown.

THE Murray Valley area of Australia, where extensive irrigation has enabled the fullest use to be made of the favourable climate and hot sun, is the home of a great industry around Mildura. An intensive and prosperous cultivation has been established within quite a short time in what was formerly waste land; there are today 37,000 acres of vineyard in this part of Victoria. To produce one pound of dried fruit requires three pounds of fresh; since Australia's average is now 60,000 tons of raisins and 18,000 tons of currants a year, her production of grapes is large indeed. Most of Britain's and Canada's supplies of dried fruit come from Australia. The vineyards of South Africa, though mainly intended for wine, produce several thousand tons of dried fruit as well, and Cyprus also deals in raisins and currants.



But the principal purpose of the vineyard is to make wine, and all these countries do so—Cyprus for many centuries, Canada for her own use from the time of French settlement, South Africa (Cape Province) from the time of Dutch settlement, and Australia (mainly South Australia) in comparatively recent years. It is quite easy to press out grape juice and ferment it into wine. But it requires the experience of many generations to make it into *good* wine. Both the new Commonwealth wine-makers are gaining that experience. South Africa's Constantia vintage, in fact, was rated high by connoisseurs even in 1795. Whilst neither Australia nor South Africa can compete with Continental wines in foreign



countries, a preferential rate of duty over foreign wines enables them to sell more cheaply in Britain where the popularity of Commonwealth wines is growing as their quality improves and as they become better known. Cyprus wine, also, is regularly sold in London. Of all the countries of the Commonwealth and Empire, however, (excluding Malta and Cyprus), Britain alone consumes wine to any great extent. Both South Africa and Australia, therefore, produce mainly the favourite port and sherry types of sweet wine.



Cutting pineapples on a Malayan plantation. The harvester works with astonishing speed too, is the pretium with which he tosses the pines into his basket. The slender tree papaws from whose fruit papaw, which makes meat tender, is obtained.

The Story of Tea, Coffee and Cocoa

All these three have some things in common. As the source of a stimulating but alcoholic drink they were known from very early times in their original countries of but have since become universally used. In each case they owe their world-wide presence in minute quantities of a stimulating drug which, though in itself is beneficial in the quantities and under the conditions present when the leaf is used in the normal way. The principal drugs concerned are caffeine in coffee (which also contains tannin) and theobromine in cocoa.

Britain is the greatest consumer of Tea in the world; nevertheless she did not produce this delicacy, which now become a necessity, brought to Europe by Portuguese in the sixteenth century, and Pepys, nearly a hundred years later, could still regard it as a curiosity in London. At that time only China was known to produce it and it was not until some hundred years later that it was cultivated elsewhere. In the 1830s the tea plant was found to grow wild in Assam. Cultivation was taken up and it was planted in other parts of India and after the introduction of the coffee plantations in Ceylon in the 1880s, replaced them as a planter's crop. Later still it was brought to East Africa. Today the principal sources of the world's supply—outside China—are India, Ceylon, Kenya and



Chinese worker grooves out the eyes of peeled pineapples in one of Malaya's six canneries. Well over quarter of a million cases were exported in 1949.

Maland; to a slight extent, Natal and recently, the Cameron Highlands area of Malaya. A crop is grown in Mauritius. England, Ireland, Australia and New Zealand drink more per head than any other country. Both India and Ceylon, in spite of their vast production, consume only a low average per person (four ounces per year in India—about 1/40th of the Englishman's pre-war average). But in both countries the demand is rising.

Tea is gathered from a shrub which, growing wild, may reach twenty feet, but which in cultivation is pruned to a flat bush only three or four feet high. After a long dormancy, the tree bursts out into a "flush" of young shoots. The bud ripens, and the next day or sometimes three leaves are picked daily—the smaller the leaf the higher the grade. During the season of growth—March to September—these flushes occur at intervals of a week or ten days. Picking is continuous, since otherwise the flavour is spoiled. Indian women have proved the fastest and most adept at this task. After picking, the leaves are spread out to wither and are then rolled. Next they are

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

allowed to ferment slightly, and turn from green to almost black, when they are dried brittle and graded. Since quality and flavour are the most essential requirements within the Commonwealth and Empire, tea is grown in scientifically managed plantations, and processed with the utmost care in factories. The various flavours and qualities depend upon the soil, and upon variations in the processes of withering and fermenting. Finally the art of the tea blender is enlisted to combine different types into a mixture which will give the required strength and flavour for the various market requirements. Brick tea, used in India and Asia, is made from tea dust compressed into blocks of a pound or two in weight.

ALTHOUGH tea is a fairly new industry in Ceylon, this Dominion is now one of the largest exporters. After fifty years of successful coffee-growing, the coffee bug virtually destroyed this industry by 1886. Within a year, however, a wide area had been planted with tea, and within fifty years half a million acres were in production. Today Ceylon's tea industry has been described as one of the best and the most scientifically organized in the world. Most tea is grown on the hilly country, on plantations owned and managed by British planters, and the picking and processing is done by Tamils, an Indian tribe, some of whom are permanently settled in Ceylon, or coming there to work for a space of years. India herself produces nearly double the amount that Ceylon exports, but markets less abroad; her export crop fetches about £25 million, Ceylon's about £28 million; of the combined total some £14 million worth is sent to America.

Forty thousand pounds of sultanas on the drying racks at Mildura in north-western Victoria. This is the centre of Australia's dried fruit industry which supplies most of the needs of Britain and Canada.

Photo: Government of Australia



We owe the introduction of Coffee into Europe to the Turkish invasions of the sixteenth century, which served as a stimulant to the Muslims, whom wine was forbidden. Later it was used in Vienna, and by the eighteenth century had reached England. Coffee-houses, the forerunners of our modern clubs, became an important feature of social life. We have seen that Ceylon was originally a great coffee producer. Jamaica likewise became famous for her Blue Mountain coffee of superior quality, but again the plantations have been virtually destroyed, this time by soil erosion. But after the war of 1914-18, a new source of supply appeared in East Africa, and in Uganda, the Kenya Highlands, Tanganyika and Nyasaland all produce coffee crops for export to Britain, to America, Australia and Canada.

ough her production exceeds that of any of these countries, exports only a small amount. Coffee is grown also in Sierra Leone, British Guiana, parts of Malaya and to a small extent in Natal and Queensland though so far none of these territories produces more than enough for local consumption.

Columbus, when he discovered America, brought back to Spain the fruit of a tree which grew wild in the tropical forests, and from which the natives prepared a drink. Later, in Mexico, the Spaniards learned this art, and more than a century passed before cocoa became fashionable in England, and it was much later still—not until the middle of the last century—before it was cheap enough for all and ceased to be a luxury.

Although not native, the cocoa tree grows well in tropical West Africa. It was introduced there by an African in 1879, and ever since has been grown by native farmers to sell to Europeans. Today Nigeria and the Gold Coast produce half the world's supply, and even sell £27 million worth to America. High-grade cocoa is also grown in the West Indies and used for chocolate.

Although cocoa is prepared as a powder for drinking purposes, it is the 'quite recent' development of processing the "nib" or kernel with sugar and milk to form chocolate which accounts for the great demand. By 1939 world production had readily risen to over 700,000 tons of beans, but the world's appetite for chocolate is quite insatiable. It is, therefore, a disaster, not only to the Gold Coast but to all of us, that the cocoa farms there should have been attacked by the Swollen Shoot disease which destroys the yield, and is so highly infectious that the only remedy is to cut down and burn all the affected trees. This disease has most seriously injured West African production, and since not only does the farmer grow and harvest the trees, but all the womenfolk and family work at splitting the husk, extracting the beans and drying them for sale to the buyer's agent, it has caused great distress to the peasants. Replanting is of course carried out, but as the tree takes ten years to reach maturity, it is a slow business. For this reason new areas in Malaya are being surveyed with a view to planting.

Cocoa is a good example of a "cash crop"—that is to say, a crop grown by native peasants solely for the purpose of selling to others and not for their own use. The temptation to make more money in this way, rather than by planting and harvesting



Cyprus has cultivated grapes for centuries and today has good exports of wine, especially to Britain. Below the vineyards, potatoes—not much grown in the past—are now produced in quantity, 10,000 tons of the spring crop alone being shipped overseas in 1948.

foodstuffs to consume themselves, is very strong, and has led to extensive areas being devoted entirely to such saleable crops. Such cultivation generally falls a victim sooner or later either to disease, soil erosion, or to bad seasons, and then if the one crop fails, there is neither money nor food. For this reason tropical farmers are encouraged to increase the range of their activities, and produce foodstuffs and other crops, so that henceforth countries like the Gold Coast should not be so entirely at the mercy of circum-



Drying tea on an estate in the Dickoma District of Ceylon, the largest exporters, where drying and processing are done by Tamil workers. Tea of this quality is also grown in several territories in Central Africa, including Kenya, Northern Rhodesia (see page 10).

stances if their one crop should fail. The final result of this policy will be a more diversified production of these commercial crops more in line with the tropical colonies, instead of concentrating one product into one particular crop.

Sugar, the most important of what is a staple of great antiquity in the East. Legend claims that it can be extracted from what is a staple of great antiquity in the East.

produced sugar centuries before the time of Christ; it was known to the Greeks, and various offshoots from the East were traded in Europe in early times. It had been known in England before Christ was born.

In more recent times the West Indies have been the home of sugar, and have been introduced by Columbus, and the early settlers grew it to trade with Spain. Sugar works were established in Barbados in 1640, in Jamaica in 1665. The sugar cane was found growing in the Pacific by Captain Cook in 1770, and planted in Australia by immigrants as early as 1817.



Tea leaves filled with the young leaves. Tamil women pickers in a Ceylon tea garden make their way to the weighing shed. Next the tea will be lightly packed in sacks and taken to the factory for processing.

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

The sugar cane is planted from cuttings, in rows about four or five feet apart, plant a foot or more from its neighbour. The ground must be well cultivated before and kept clear of weeds. The stem, which contains the sugar, reaches a height of ten feet, the growing period varying from a year to eighteen months. During the rainfall is of great importance; if there is too little, the cane will not grow full stature; if there is too much, the juice will be diluted and the yield of sugar extraction reduced. Natal is favoured by cool winters which make the cane take years to ripen, and in consequence the average sugar yield is high.

IT is important that the sugar be cut at the season when the juice is reckoned to be the highest sugar content, and this varies from country to country. January to June in the West Indies, August to January in Mauritius, May to December in Natal are some of the harvest periods. After the cane has been cut as near to the ground as possible, it is trimmed of its top and dead leaves and carried to the factory. Today it is a bulky and heavy crop at this stage, light portable railways are run into the fields, the cane is loaded on trolleys and these are then pushed until they reach a loading station on the railway proper. As each field is cut, this light railway is taken up and brought to a new scene of operations. A second crop, known as the ratoon crop, is grown from the old plant after the first harvest, but after that the land must be replanted with new cuttings if the yield is to be maintained.

In the old days cultivation, cutting and transportation were done by hand, and pressing as well. It is heavy work today, even with the assistance of machinery, cutting is still done by hand and all these operations must be carried out under a hot sun. From the earliest days the planters of the West Indies relied on slave labour imported from Africa. This terrible traffic, carried on for over two centuries, laid the foundation of many fortunes. Its abolition in the British colonies in 1834 materially affected the prosperity of the planters, though contrary to their expectations it did not destroy the industry. The end of slave labour corresponded with the introduction of machinery and steam power to undertake much of what was formerly done by hand. Today the cartage of the cane from the fields to the factory, the crushing, and all the sugar-making operations are done mechanically. The whole extraction, in fact, once the cane is cut, is a factory process; but hand labour is still necessary to plant and to cut. Thus cane sugar production is still confined, apart from Australia, to countries with a plentiful supply of African or Indian labour, able to do field work in the tropics.

Where Empire Sugar is Grown

Jamaica is still the leading producer in the West Indies, followed by Barbados and Trinidad. But within the last hundred years other Commonwealth and Empire countries have developed industries—British Guiana (brown sugar is still kept in Demerara in the shops), Mauritius, Natal, Australia and Fiji. Mauritius, a small island, has increased her production from 500 tons in 1812 to 416,000 tons in 1912 and sugar is her principal industry. The great increase in recent years is largely due to the improved variety of cane. Australia, the only sugar grower to depend on white labour, has experimented with mechanical methods of cultivation and cane-cutting, and today, to Britain, New Zealand and Malaya, as well as providing for her own people with an average, the Australian canes now produce as much sugar as an Englishman or a Canadian. The main crop grows in Queensland. An Australian company also controls the industry in Fiji. Here the cane is grown by Indian peasant farmers under the company's supervision.

It Gives One Third of the World's Sugar

ed farms of ten acres or more, and is bought and processed by the company's mills. India, although her total production is very great indeed—over three million tons—has no surplus for export and, in fact, needs to import still more to supply her billion people. Most of her production is in a crude brown form known as *gur*.

The modern sugar processing industry is highly mechanized. The cane is crushed successive times to extract the utmost juice, and the resulting liquid mixed, cleared, purified, clarified and then crystallized. The thousands of tons of woody fibre left after extraction (known as *bagasse* or *mugasse*) serves as fuel for the furnaces, though experiments are taking place to put it to industrial uses; in particular, as a source of energy for making artificial silk. The leaves are ploughed in for manure, and the "cake" or muddy residue after filtering is a powerful fertilizer. As a by-product of the crystallization process, great quantities of sweet syrup, known as *molasses*, are produced which is used for sweetening and also as the basis for the distillation of rum which Jamaica, Barbados and British Guiana all produce for world export; Jamaica's sales abroad are not far short in value of her sales of sugar.

Sugar is also contained in many vegetable products other than the sugar cane, including potatoes and similar root crops, and cereals (where it is changed by fermentation into alcohol) and sap of certain trees (maple sugar). It is over a hundred years since it was found that sugar could profitably be extracted from the coarse white beet. This grows in north temperate latitudes, and is produced entirely in Europe, North America and Canada. Britain produces about half a million tons annually, Canada about one-fifth of this amount. Naturally this source of supply, grown in temperate countries formerly entirely dependent upon the tropics for sugar, has seriously affected cane-growing countries. The world needs all that can be grown; part goes to industrial uses and the production of industrial alcohol; more to the canned fruit, jam, and chocolate industries, all of which are recent and expanding, and some ever larger quantities of sugar. Hence, although the beet sugar constitutes one-third of the world's supply,

In Kenya, European farmers have taught the Africans how to grow coffee. The crop is picked (below) and the fruit or—"cherries"—taken to one of several co-operative societies which pulps it and dries and bags the beans.





On a banana farm in the Gold Coast, the pods (which take 3 months to ripen) are dropped off with a machete. They are then split open (below) and the wet seeds, seen in the picture, are removed. After fermentation, the seeds are spread out on mats to dry.



the world to
that both in
produce in the

Young
mainly as a
of an Omani
policy that
a major find
not oil rich
and in most
with yours
ever you are
are shared
according to
over claim
in the past
perpetration
as food will
iron, and
be idealistic
under pressure
be citizens
mainly for
principally
perhaps a
of the pro
and can be
it. Now at
Exercises
for pigs
their hand

Y has
supply
nearly dis
any other
feel is very
but, in fact,
food which
work in M
and their
flavour, m
an incredible
what ever
they
back, when
after the
more in
the water



Australia (below), the stems are trimmed of leaves and piled in heaps for
 ives by light railway at a modern factory at Beapuri in Southern India (above)
 with 1,000 tons a day. Train loads waiting to go in are seen on the sidings.

... like the Brazil,
 packed within the
 store the nut can be
 the husk must be
 cracked and the meat
 rather important
 be used for oil
 thousands of tons
 out of many lands
 and the temperate
 the crops for oil
 in the tropics,
 groundnuts and
 the natives, and
 are, are incredibly
 at shelling nuts by
 the economic
 nuts depends on
 asses can be done
 try. Many varieties
 onome value than
 ewise, on account
 they present to
 g. The groundnut



Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

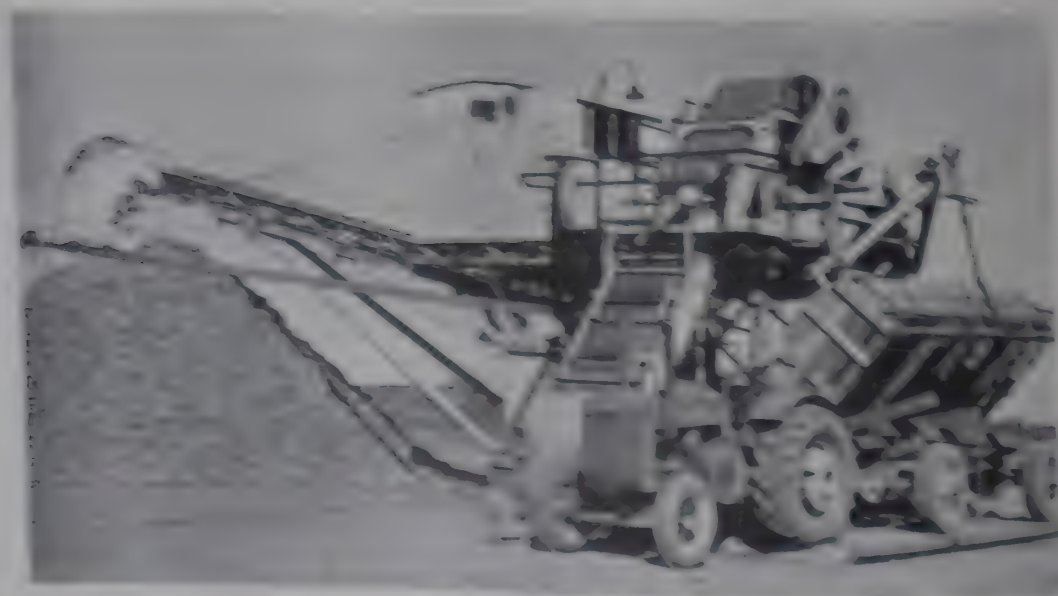
Walnut is ideal for mechanical preparation since it offers no such difficulties. For transport purposes it is desirable to reduce the bulk as much as possible. The principal value of walnuts lies in their meat rather than the shells, the export is shelled—or to use a longer but more correct word, decorticated—is preferred. The shells often have valuable industrial uses, but not enough to pay the cost.

Familiar nuts are the walnut, chestnut and Brazil nut. The walnut, throughout Europe, is grown for domestic use in Australia, New Zealand, Africa, Canada prefers two of the native American varieties, the hard-shelled and the white walnut or hatternut. The chestnut again is familiar in some zones, though the edible or sweet chestnut prefers the warmer climate of Spain where it is eaten not only boiled and roasted but also ground in flour. Bread and soup can be prepared. A similar tree—though not a true chestnut—wild in Northern India and Malaya, and the nuts there are eaten. The Brazil nut is the richest in food value, is indigenous to the tropical forests of South America. It is the fruit of a giant tree often well over 100 feet high. The main supply is from Brazil, but its increasing popularity, due to recognition of its nutritive qualities, has caused planting in Ceylon, Malaya and the West Indies. But the Brazil nut takes years to come into production, so that although valuable for the future, it is encouraging to plant for a living.

Australia has developed one native nut, the Macadamia or Queensland nut. It is borne on tall, slender trees with handsome foliage and flowers, has a hard shell and is rich in oil. Recent years have seen considerable planting of seedlings on its native land, and it has been introduced into the West Indies and

Many Uses of the Amazing Coconut

But all these varieties are trifles compared with the coconut. The coconut is found in India, Malaya and Ceylon and its principal homes though it grows all over the tropics, West Africa and elsewhere in the tropics. Almost every part of the coconut tree is



Sugar beet arriving at a Canadian factory. The whole wagon is dumped and the beet, cracked by the huge automatic unloader. The Dominion produces about 100,000 tons of beet sugar every year.

tree is
The fr
both fr
the fr
drinking
makes
coal, a
savoury
woven
mattres
The sam
be boiled
crude oil
into a
larrack
serve
and b
and the
milk
of out

export and for
the most impor-
tant of the coconut
is dried flesh of
it. Drying is
to prevent the
fermenting, but
conserved and
traded under
The nuts are
shaken who
up the tall, bare
trees with the
In the Pacific
packing is a
all, almost a
The nuts are



The copra industry in Fig-
one tree may carry as many
as 50 to 80 coconuts at a time.
After collection, the nuts are
split and the "meat" cut
out with a special knife (left),
split with a heavy knife
and the flesh is extracted—
family work carried out
by the women—at an in-
credible speed. The flesh,
cut into strips, may be
dried in the sun, or over
the smoky fire of the
huts, or—in modern
times—in special ovens.

Only excellent flesh
dried by the oven method
today gives copra suitable
for the extraction of edible
oil, the other ways being
inferior and the product
suitable only for industrial

Copra is then generally exported, and pressed elsewhere by mechanical means.
after the oil is extracted, known as *Poona*, is a rich and valuable cattle food.
It has been the usual practice to ship copra to Europe for extraction
the producer countries are today anxious to establish mills on the spot and
to ship oil abroad. This policy has a threefold advantage: to set up industries to
go side with farming, to conserve the by-products for their own use as cattle
to provide more and better paid employment for their own people.
On the other hand, the world shortage of oils is so great and the supply of raw materials
is so essential to extract the maximum oil in the most efficient way and this can only
be done locally. Similar problems also face the oil palm and groundnut industries.

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

No picture of the Pacific is complete without some of these characteristic tree-like giant feather brooms, decorating the landscape. The opening up of the Pacific after Captain Cook's voyages was mainly due to the trade in copra which attracted adventurers from all over the world. Although the days of the hard-bitten traders are now over, copra is still of the greatest economic importance.

Fiji, Tonga and New Guinea are the major Pacific producers. Before the war, Malaya was developing coconut estates, under European management, as an alternative to rubber, and also planted the tree on land reclaimed from swamp. She exports both copra and coconut oil, but, as with all her production, this suffered during hostilities and will take many years to regain its former output. The West Indies export copra, but in Jamaica and Trinidad factories have been established to make margarine, cooking fats and so on and in time these may well supply the total requirements of all the islands in these produce. Production for these large-scale operations is carried out on estates, but, in addition, coconut grows freely throughout the islands, and is put to immediate use by every peasant and landowner.

Ceylon is a producer on a large scale, particularly of the highest grade nuts which are made into desiccated coconut used throughout the world in cakemaking and confectionery. The industry is carried out almost entirely by the Sinhalese, whilst the tea industry is mainly worked by Indians. India consumes her own production of coconuts and their products; especially in the coastal districts of Southern India where they are a mainstay of the people who have developed a large industry in coir matting, basketwork and ropes made from the fibre. Zanzibar also exports copra and coir ropes.

Certain ingenious uses of the coconut have been developed by Americans in the Philippines. For example, by a special process a rich coconut milk can be produced and bottled, also coconut syrup and coconut honey. Such uses might, if successfully marketed, provide a new range of valuable and novel products.

Rich Products of the Oil Palm

Second great source of vegetable oils is the Oil Palm, a native of West Africa. Palm oil has always been one of the most valuable exports from the West Coast. The tree grows wild, and until comparatively recently the fruit was collected by Africans from the jungle. Latterly, however, plantations have been laid out, since by growing under control selected strains of high oil content, maintained by proper cultivation, can be made to give a better yield. The fruit, not unlike a yellow olive, is borne in big clusters averaging 30 lbs. in weight, though they may reach half a hundredweight. A cluster may contain over a thousand separate fruits. Each tree has six to eight clusters at the top of the stem where the leaves begin. Trees bear after six or seven years and continue to fruit until forty or fifty years old. There are two crops a year, the heavier in the dry season, the lighter in the wet.

One feature of the oil palm is its wide distribution over the whole tropical belt, including French Equatorial Africa and the Belgian Congo. Among British colonies Nigeria is first, though here the oil palm is now being displaced by cocoa. Sierra Leone follows; cocoa in the Gold Coast has displaced oil as a cash crop, whilst The Gambia is too small to have a big commercial output.

The oil palm has been introduced as a plantation crop into Malaya where improved varieties of stock planted before the war are now bearing fruit. It is also grown by the Malay peasants as an alternative cash crop to rubber, to reduce their dependence



West Africa, fruiting heads of the Oil Palm, which may vary in weight from 7 lbs. to as much as 56 lbs., are cut from the tree with an axe by an African harvester who scales the trunk aided by his climbing loop (right). In Malaya (above) cut heads are transferred from a bullock-cart to the light railway truck in which they will be hauled to the factory for processing and extraction of the oil.

Food from the Commonwealth and Em

up to a single community. To a more limited commercial extent the palm is also in the West Indies.

Two kinds of oil are prepared: palm oil from the soft pulp of the palm kernel oil from the stone which the fruit contains. The latter is richer and is used in the manufacture of margarine, cooking fats and vegetable oil, whilst the former is mainly employed for industrial purposes, particularly the manufacture of soap.

When the bunches have been cut down by a climber, the heads are dried in the sun until the fruits shrink and can be separated. After a short fermentation, boiled, then pressed. The oil runs out, leaving pulp and nut. The nut is then dried and cracked, and the palm kernel oil extracted by pressure, preferably in

PALM oil has been used by the natives both for food and for lighting for centuries. As food, it is one of the richest in vitamins, and its use in cooking and stews (palm oil soup) goes a long way to restore the balance of an inadequate diet. As an article of trade, the oil has been exported from very early times, but only in the last fifty years has its production become a vast industry dealing in millions of pounds. This enormous export has, of course, greatly increased the prosperity of the growing areas—Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Malaya. At the same time, the traditional methods used by the natives to prepare the oil are wasteful and do not use the fruit to the best effect. Without expensive machinery no more than half the available oil is expressed by hand, and this often is of inferior quality. We cannot afford to waste our natural resources thus.

From this enormous stockpile in The Gambia, groundnuts are carried in bags up a gangway to the ship, moored in the nearby river, from which the photograph was taken.

Each porter is paid his fee as he passes the fence.



On the other hand, the large-scale oil mills in order to get the maximum production of the natives of a valuable industry, for all this work is done in the villages by men and women and all can thus add to their income. Other evils also may follow the placement of village oil factories and industrial projects in British West Africa an important step is being taken by the establishment of small mills which can be operated by the peasants through a village co-operative society and which increase the productivity of the land. This is a compromise between the traditional hand method and the highly industrialized oil mills of the Belgian Congo. But it is clear that with the world market for oil so great, there should be a more efficient method which may amount to a vast potential supply.

You may know C. G. as peanuts or m...

Groundnuts Easy to Harvest and Shell

and ripen beneath the surface of the earth, but they are just as easy to harvest as a small annual plant of the pea family. Unlike the coconut or oil palm, it must be planted each year and cultivated, but this is offset by the ease of collection. Also it bears within a year, so that the farmer does not need to wait for the reward of his labour has an annual return. Finally it is very easy to shell. Two women with pebbles can shell and winnow a ton of nuts in a week, but a new machine can do the same in an hour. For all these reasons it is an ideal crop for peasant cultivation areas.

It is very obliging, for it will grow in most hot countries where there is enough rain, provided only that there is adequate rainfall in the wet season. Originally from South America, it seems to have been brought to Africa by the Portuguese in the sixteenth century. It spread rapidly, even as far afield as the East Indies, India.

It is grown in the United States, and a small crop is raised in Australia. It is easy, requiring only that the top soil be kept thoroughly loose to allow the roots to grow; it is simple to harvest and to shell; it is most nutritious, can be roasted, mashed, boiled into soup or ground into flour. The green tops are a good place of hay; the residue of the nut, after the extraction of the oil by pressing, makes rich cattle cake; even the brown husks can be compressed into fibre board for industrial uses.

Though in both Britain and America the nuts themselves are only a secondary crop, being used in confectionery and in the form of peanut butter, they are the food of millions of people in the tropics. India, with eight million acres under cultivation, is one of the largest growers, but this huge crop is mostly consumed by her people. Nigeria is the leading exporter. Uncounted thousands of men are grown near peasants for their own use, but over and above that more than 250,000 tons of groundnuts were purchased by Britain in 1949 from Nigeria and The Gambia. These huge bulk shipments are to make oil. The extraction is done in mills and most of the oil reappears on our tables as margarine. It could, of course, be used for cooking as a substitute for other oils and fat.

Two tons of nuts will make half this quantity of margarine; thus the amount mentioned above would provide half a pound of margarine weekly for ten million people, and about four pounds of cattle cake for two million cows. World scarcity of fats after the war of 1939-45 led the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization in 1946 to recommend that more oil seeds should be grown where there was suitable land. Following up this recommendation, the British Government in the same year embarked on a bold experiment which had a double object: to increase in the amount of fats available in the world, and a rapid development of unused land in East Africa. It was proposed in the course of the next years to clear of bush and plant with groundnuts 100 acres of 30,000 acres in Tanganyika, 17 in Northern Rhodesia, 10 in Kenya. Work began in 1947. A new deep water port called Mtwara was built on Mikindani Bay in Tanganyika, and a railway was laid from there to Nachingwea, the nearest area suited to develop.

The starting of the scheme was entrusted to a private company, but in March, 1948, management was taken over by the Overseas Food Corporation, a body created by the Overseas Resources Development Act of 1948, and responsible to the British Government. Immense encouragement and hard work went into the forwarding of

the plan. But the machine required for clearing the ground made its introduction in North America, was not strong enough for the work in East Africa; the soil when cleared was less fertile than had been expected; and the rain had proved to be irregular and insufficient. The grand scheme is planned, may be possible of realization, and in 1951 it was abandoned. But the Secretary of State for the Colonies took over where the Ministry of Food left off, and with the help of the roads, railway, and port facilities began a series of useful, smaller scale experiments in gardening, horticulture and general agriculture in areas of East Africa where it is believed. In the 1951 season some 64,000 acres were planted.



EDSIBLE oils from seeds are chiefly obtained from the sunflower and East Africa and Canada, and rapeseed. The latter is, by-product of the cotton-growing industry, which within the C. Empire is located principally in India, the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and a limited extent in the tropical areas of Australia. The oil of the sunflower is used for special purposes in preparing food—a margarine, and in confectionery—though the seeds are of some use as cattle cake and poultry feed. Rapeseed oil seed oil, from the seed, is a substitute for cooking fat. Sesame seed oil is largely

immense quantities of nut seed are used for food by quantities of the Commonwealth and Empire, of which only a few here. There is the kola nut of West Africa and Malaya which are universally popular American food crops. It has a mildly stimulating caffeine. The Carib nut is grown for use as a sweetener and for the Indies, East Africa, India (which sells 3 million pounds' worth to the Indies), and a popular stimulant food.

Large quantities of the nut seed are used for food by quantities of the Commonwealth and Empire, of which only a few here. There is the kola nut of West Africa and Malaya which are universally popular American food crops. It has a mildly stimulating caffeine. The Carib nut is grown for use as a sweetener and for the Indies, East Africa, India (which sells 3 million pounds' worth to the Indies), and a popular stimulant food.



...uts in Tanganyika. Mechanical diggers drive
plants (above), lifting and shaking them free from
The nuts are left to dry in the sun for some time
are being gathered up and bagged.

in across deserts,
unmapped wastelands,
where the East
factories of the
so they brought
unknown peoples
and tales of riches
which grew into
were told and retold
routes that led from
up to Constantinople
and Venice,
and, by slave porter,
the rocks and shoals
by donkey and
bales made their
which might last
or even more, of
under spices were

to see why they
ed, apart from the
at all times set
and curious. In
even a king must
upon local produce

Coast and Northern
Nigeria, is made into
vegetable butter and is
widely used by the
Africans. Other nuts,
again, are hardly known
outside their own
countries: the Benzoin
in Jamaica, the Cashew
in British Honduras, the
Dika and Oweba in
West Africa, the Yafu
nut in Somaliland, the
Goma in Sierra Leone
and Nigeria, are all
relished by the people
of those countries.

The trade in
Spices is one of the
oldest in the world. It
was sold in the days of
Alexander the Great.



Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

—particularly meat of uncertain quality from the farm or the forest—favoured seasonings were in great demand to add taste and variety to it of the rich. Even greater, however, was the demand for medicines. Much art of healing—it indeed the powerful convictions of which we read in early herbals—came from the East. Spices were the mainstay of medieval medicine; were eager buyers throughout Europe for as much as the merchants could. The price repaid those months and years of difficult and dangerous travel. A being dried and of small bulk, they could stand the long delay without decay. The spice trade, in fact, is one of the few whose importance in world trade has diminished in modern times.

EVEN in antiquity the principal spices were much the same as they are today: cinnamon, nutmeg and mace, cloves, ginger, camphor and, above all, pepper. Many were introduced into Europe after the Crusades, since the Arabs were, for a time, intermediaries between Africa and the Far East. All of these had medicinal uses. Cloves, cinnamon and pepper were used as condiments. Pepper was the most important and even in England payment of a given quantity was sometimes demanded for some service, in place of money.

Amongst the many incentives for exploration was the desire to get directly to the sources of spices and secure some of the huge profits which they commanded. As knowledge and skill on the seas developed, so it became more possible and profitable to find cheaper and more accessible sources of supply from which the merchandise could be carried by sea straight to Europe. Ceylon, West Africa, Sumatra and Java were reached by the Portuguese; Columbus sailed to the West Indies; Vasco da Gama reached India, and early in the sixteenth century the Moluccas or Spice Islands, home of cloves and nutmeg, were reached. Cargoes now came by sea directly to Portugal, to the Netherlands and to England. The great overland routes were done with then the wealth of Venice. A new generation of merchants on the Atlantic coast began a new age of wealth, leaving their mark on London, Amsterdam, and Rouen.

Today pepper is still the most important spice in commerce. It is a native of Ceylon and India, and though many varieties exist, pepper as we know it is from the berries gathered from a type of vine. It has been introduced into New Guinea, though the bulk of imports still comes from India. Both black and white pepper are from the same source, white being the berry dried after the outer skin has been removed. The red pepper or cayenne, used greatly in African native cooking, is from a different plant and is enclosed in a sheath-like pod.

FROM the West Indies come nutmegs and mace, ginger and pimento. The nutmeg is the seed or stone of a fruit about the size of a peach, growing on a tree. When the fruit is ripe, it is split; within is the seed case wrapped in layers of what appears to be crimson lace. This sheath is removed and dried; the colour fades to yellow. This is mace. The nutmeg within bears the same markings as its wood-like surface where it has been held tightly by the mace. Within the West Indies, Guernsey is the principal exporter, and in recent years it has produced nearly two-thirds of her external trade.

Ginger, the home of which is China, is the dried root of a tropical plant. It is a stem or root ginger, according to the part used, stem being superior to root. It is grown extensively in India, Java for export in dried form and for use

is also as a cultivated crop of higher value in Jamaica and Sierra Leone, with a small amount in Nigeria. The greater part is exported to Britain and America. Before the war there was a considerable world trade in preserved ginger as a sweetener; ginger purchased in bulk was preserved in syrup, bottled, and sold in the British colony of Hong Kong. Dried powdered ginger is employed in cooking as a flavouring, in pickling and also as a preservative.

PIMENTO, the dried fruit of a native West Indian, is mainly grown in Jamaica and is used for pickling and sauces. **Chilies**, or the fruit of a plant of the capsicum genus, sometimes known as pimientos, though in fact, from a different plant. India is the largest producer and exporter of chilies—red, like a small red runner bean, is to be found in all parts of mixed pickles. When dried, a hot ingredient to curry. They have the quality that the hotter the climate in which they are grown, the hotter they are themselves. The chilies of Eastern Europe (used to make paprika) are much less pungent than those of India or Africa, where they really add vigour to curries or curries. Another important Indian product is **turmeric**, a dried tuber used extensively in cooking and in the manufacture of pickles.

NAMON, employed as a flavouring but also as the source of a medicinal oil, is the fruit of a tree which grows wild in Ceylon. This island is the major producer and exporter.

The islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, off the east coast of Africa, are the modern home of clove and produce the bulk of the world's trade. Cloves are grown in plantations and provide the chief occupation for both islands. Zanzibar, once a centre of the Arab slave trade, came under British protection in the middle of the nineteenth century as the only way in which the trade was suppressed. The slave trade had made the sultan of Zanzibar rich and powerful; now the clove tree was to become a greater, and peaceful, source of wealth. Cloves are used not only for their flavour but also for the oil of cloves which they yield for medicinal purposes.



Pepper vine on a plantation on the Malabar Coast in India which furnishes the bulk of the world's supplies. After picking, the berries are dried in the sun (below).



Food from the Commonwealth and E.

Unfortunately even the aromatic clove is subject to disease. In 1905 a disease known as "Sudden Death" has attacked the plantations in South India. The very life of the clove industry is at stake. The disease is studied, both in laboratories and by a party of scientists sent out from the islands, in order to find the cause and a remedy. But already over half the clove plantations have been killed and so far the battle against this scourge has not

AN extract from the papaw fruit, known as papain, whilst not strictly proved of much commercial value in modern times. This fruit grows in the tropics, especially in Malaya and the Pacific Islands, and also in the West Indies. It is sometimes cultivated and there are plantations in Tanganyika for it. The natives found that when the fruit was cooked with meat it had the effect of making the meat tender. Papain is prepared for this purpose and is used in the processed and canned meat industry.

Two factors have increased the use of all spices in recent times. One is the fact of Indian curry powder, since this dish is now popularized throughout the world. The second is the widespread use of manufactured stews, which are largely of tomato pulp heavily spiced and seasoned with vinegar and cassareep, or cassia or similar roots. Sauces and pickled vegetables include many spices in their composition, and serve the same purpose as did the raw spices of olden times—to vary the diet and to disguise what might otherwise displease our exacting taste.

Fishing Grounds of the North Atlantic

Although Man in his earliest days lived on the wild products of Nature, he soon learned to rear domestic herds and cultivate crops. From this all the great industries of modern times have developed, save one. That one is fish; and for many years—until the middle years of the twentieth century—Man sought fish, and could find them, and depended on Nature to do the breeding. But he began to be alarmed that certain edible fish were disappearing from the grounds where they had been accustomed to find them in quantity. The herring, for instance, deserted the North Sea. Scientists began increasingly to study the habits of the fish in their particular areas, and to try to find ways of restoring fish to the grounds they had left. Meanwhile fishermen had to go farther afield in search of this precious food.

Most fish live in waters above the hundred fathom mark (that is, they are shallow water fish). The world's biggest fishing grounds are in the North Atlantic, where the underwater shelf known as the Grand Banks runs out for three or four hundred miles from the land of Newfoundland and Labrador. The fishing trade has been one of the most important industries all along that coast from the time of its first discovery. Dutch, Danish and British have all at times disputed the possession of the banks. France of all nations has always fished the Grand Banks, for the banks are open to all.

The modern equipment of a deep-sea fishing fleet is far in advance of the old-fashioned coastal waters. Powered by Diesel engines, the boats are equipped with light, radio and even electrical devices for locating the shoals of fish. The modern fleet now includes Labrador and Newfoundland, lands about half a century ago. On the Atlantic coast the principal catch is cod, haddock and halibut, and herring, mackerel, salmon and other smaller fish. The modern fleet is much larger than the old fleet, and the catch is much larger. The modern fleet is much larger than the old fleet, and the catch is much larger.



commerce is the bud of the clove flower (1), picked and grows on a tall, bushy tree (2). In the islands of Zanzibar, which produce 82 per cent. of the world's supply, bought for examination by an officer of the Clove Growing (3) and later packed in special bags for export (4).

East coast. On the Pacific coast, where the shell beneath the sea is much food, turkey-fish, halibut and herring are landed, the latter by the millions. Not enough, the Canadian likes an ever-growing fish for treatment like pickled and more.

The industry is of surrounding economic importance in the Maritime Provinces, all in Newfoundland where it has always provided the bulk of the economy. It has been in the past, and still is, valued and desired for export, transportation, and industries based on fish products have revolutionized the trade. Salmon is the main product of the fisheries, as it is the most popular and economical of the price. Moreover, the salmon is a fish of the sea, where it is a popular treat for the rivers where it spawns, and returning to the sea as a popular fish. It can be caught in great nets in the wide river channels. Such industry by a natural nation-state has created a strong and prosperous nation.



In a British Columbia salmon cannery. The fish are brought straight from the salmon on a conveyor, to be cleaned, canned, sealed and then wheeled into a retort to be cooked.

Photo by Leonard Rosenthal, The Strand

elaborate fact-machinery wear off pounds.

Other is regular; while some, they see at others. Polk once studied in quarters of coast, virtually a few years ago knows whether they will remain uncertain in large sums of capacities prove.

During the war, herring increased export to Japan products of cod liver oil, liver oil are of medicine and source of

systems to supplement inadequate feeding. Another extensive industry, on the Pacific coast, is the preparation of fish oil and fish meal, the latter livestock. When there is a glut of herring, hundreds of tons of fish may be at market for the fields.

On the other side of the world, Australia, with 12,000 miles of coastal waters, is noted more for the variety of her fish than for quantity. Many are important commercially and are raised. Australian fish, owing to feeding grounds, have a particularly high oil content. The snapper, the pr. barramundi are typical fish of the warmer waters, and by the Great Barrier (Humboldt), the abaca and bocarra are game fish hunted by sportsmen. A Australian chaper chaps are plentiful. At the other end of the scale, oysters in New South Wales, and in the north there are valuable beds of pearl oys for Macmillans who are powerful swimmers and divers.

NEW ZEALAND also is a home of game fish, particularly around the Bay of Islands where mackerels, mackerels and sharks may be found. Fluke are caught in the Halloway waters, and flying fish, sardines and eels. All sea scale are found, and there is a considerable sealing industry. Both New Australia share by the American whaling, whose season opens in October. It is a special industry, quite apart from the normal fishing trade, and it is only its products have been used for food as well as for industrial purposes.

The fisheries of South Africa are of minor importance, although it is rich in fish. Cape Herring is a true member of the salmon family, kabsch is a mackerel, and other fish sometimes called cod and mackerel.

neries for Crawfish and Tunny

ough off the Cape, while the Atlantic coast of South-West Africa, off Walvis-
bich, is famous for its haul of snook. Perhaps the most important catch is stockfish. Further
dried and sold to the British Isles, instead, exported to other parts of Africa.
European market crawfish have provided a minor industry, their tails,
being frozen for export; a canner, but this product has been set up
of Tunes de Coria where tunny fish may also furnish a growing industry.

All the Caribbean seas are famous for their rich variety of underwater
life and rare and curious fish, these are not of commercial significance. It seems
an curious do not allow a high concentration of the submergence which fill
the shoals are not large. On the other hand, the West Indian islands offer
easy access to the sea, so that although the haul of coastal fisheries is
small, it is of much local importance to their own tables. Kingfish, snapper,
snout and the like are caught, whilst shellfish and turtle are plentiful, the
latter being valued for their export. The Bahamas are a great source for parrot-
fish, tunny, marlin, the fine named a fighting fish which may reach eight
feet and over 300 lbs. weight. But this is a rich man's sport, the common fish
catching and artisanry roll of the fishermen who provide so much of the
food.

Other big fish, however, is of increasing economic importance—the shark.
Shark oil has a high vitamin content; while shark skin can be made into leather.

Canada's Pacific coast yield an abundant harvest of herring. Here they are being lifted
out by a trawler, or huge sloop net, which is operated by a power winch. The man with
the pole guides the trawler into the tightly packed mass of fish.

Photo: Canadian National Film Board



Food from the Commonwealth and En

and the flesh can be used as meat. This industry is being developed by a company in British Honduras and a French company in The Gambia.

Although most of the world's catch comes from the sea, there is a steady stream of fish in rivers and lakes all over the Commonwealth and Empire. The inland fisheries are those of Canada, but much attention has been paid in re-

A shark fishery has been established in British Honduras to exploit the commercial uses of the fish. Though all from the river is most in demand, markets are being found for almost every part. The sharks, which may weigh up to 400 lb., are caught in a seine net with a 12 in. mesh, measuring 200 ft. by 22 ft. (below).



no increasing the fish in tropical. The lakes of L. Nyasaland, which always been importance for to be scientifically. This entails a balance of the fish suitable conditions to feed and increasing for be most cheaply bulk, which is season and best prepared. It is also possible fish in fish for controlled conditions stock its feeding grounds.

All this is important step improvement of particularly in numbers of employed were

African peoples, of which always used the rivers taking the fish in nets or spearing them. To have a great fishery in Lake Uganda—some 24 million caught yearly and salted—so, the wealth of fresh African lakes has not yet been reached. The appropriate Fisheries Research Officer trained staff in Calcutta should in a few years' time substantial contribution to welfare.





...a part of the diet of the people of Malaya and the islands nearest it. Around the
line are extensively fished. This gaily-decorated craft with high, up-bow prow
is one of twelve different kinds used by the fishermen of Malaya.



Part Three

LOCAL DIETS AND PLANS FOR THE FUTURE

MEAT TIME in Africa? Or India—or the South Seas? Here we tell you about the daily food of some of the native peoples of the Commonwealth and Empire, and of some of the things they grow and eat which we do not. Surprisingly different many of these are, and most interesting the ways in which they are prepared and the etiquette which attends that preparation. Unhappily, too many of the millions of Commonwealth and Empire citizens who depend upon them for life itself do not get enough to provide an adequate diet throughout the year.

But recently the anxiety of increasing food production in Commonwealth and especially Empire territories has been realized, both for their own sakes and for that of the world at large. So here, in conclusion, we examine some of the ways in which, by planned action and scientific research, the Commonwealth and Empire's contribution to the world's food supplies is being expanded. We shall find that each of the great independent Dominions is engaged in this task, and that so, too, aided and guided by Britain, are the Colonies.

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

SO far, in this story of Commonwealth and Empire food production, our attention has been given to the major food crops; and of these it has been possible to include only the most important, on which millions of people rely. Most products, also, are quite well known in Europe, and appear in one form or another on our tables. Perhaps the greatest variation comes in fruit and vegetables, for they are so closely tied to climate. Many common green vegetables, like cabbage, lettuce or peas, have been introduced into most parts of the world. Peas and beans, too, grow in many different climatic conditions. Tomatoes are not only found in the temperate zone but in the tropics also, in numerous parts of Africa, and in the West Indies; they have a small but growing trade with Britain and Canada, and possess a cannery for processing tomatoes raised by small farmers.

Outstanding among the root crops is the potato. This grows throughout the temperate areas; it is a large crop (nearly 650,000 tons) in Australia, Canada and New Zealand also. Malta formerly exported a small quantity and Cyprus sends several thousand tons overseas yearly. A comparatively recent development in this island is the export to Britain of seed potatoes and vegetable seeds. The island exporting potatoes is Jersey, one of the Channel Islands. Her earlier spring crop has to supply a great part of the early new potatoes to the English market. In the tropics the root crop of the sweet potato being grown; but this is botanically a different plant.

In passing from their country of origin to the country where they are used, many products change considerably. Margarine bears little resemblance to palm oil or groundnut, and a bar of chocolate is far removed from the cocoa bean or sugar cane. When you think of the wheat fields of Canada or the cattle ranches of Argentina, or sugar by the million tons shipped all over the world, this is only one side of the picture. The object of all this vast industry which employs millions of people might be simply that each single person may have on his plate the sort of meal to which he is accustomed, and which he needs twice or thrice daily in order to carry out his work. For each one of us, the vital thing is not food-stuffs in general, but the meal which we shall eat ourselves.

IN the whole, men and women of every race and country require much the same things from their meals. Protein for growth; starch or carbohydrates, sugar for energy; vitamins for protection against disease; liquids and traces of salts. The human body is constantly using these things, some more and faster than others, but they must all be replaced up to a certain level if health is to be maintained. Food is complete in itself, so that several types of food must always be eaten; each has shown which groups are needed to supplement each other. But although the needs of people are the same, the way in which they obtain those requirements varies widely. Dinner in Africa, or London, or Fiji may look remarkably different, but the nutrient principles of each are, in fact, much the same.

The scientific study of food values is a new development and is still incomplete. Nevertheless Man has always managed to feed himself, and has not starved, although many have starved, without knowing why. At the present time we are finding that traditional foods and food customs of tropical peoples, which were thought extraordinary and were called uncivilized, are, in fact, very well adapted to the conditions of life of the people concerned. Often, indeed, the introduction of civilized foods has proved a disadvantage. But the scientific study of diet is necessary in times of change so as to make the best use of what is available in plan production for the future. And, generally speaking, the world is

conditions for the African, far from those of the bush-village and changes in food, are gradually being introduced in colonial territories. In Africa, copper mine workers have compounds (right) and modern houses (below) are replacing the traditional ones.



food. Indeed, in some parts even of the Empire, the majority of the people have barely enough to eat for subsistence.

Although people in Europe rely mainly on shops, most of the world does not depend on the shopkeeper for the food

but has to produce it itself. Even in Britain, an industrial country with its population living in towns, many thousands of people produce part of their food from gardens and allotments. But they do not have to depend on the market. Particularly in the tropics, however, many million peasants live *entirely* on what they produce themselves, needing the market or shop only for luxuries and special items.

The routine of meals does not greatly vary in the countries which have a predominantly European population. An Englishman would recognize his breakfast, lunch and dinner in Canada or Australia; he might find that he had an unusual amount of meat and unaccustomed dishes—maple syrup in Canada, for example, or fresh tropical fruits in Australia—but the *kind* of meal would be the same. Nor, in fact, would his meals be substantially different even in the tropics, as long as there was a European community to provide the life of the white man.

Outside these communities there are millions of citizens of the Commonwealth and Empire who live very differently. Some have copied European ways, others live as they did before the white man came to their country. Most live as peasants, on their own fields or jungle, exchanging perhaps with neighbours, but not, as the white man does, drawing upon the varied resources of other countries and climates. If the area from which they are supplied is limited, they have developed a capacity for utilizing many plants and animals which are not generally regarded as suitable for food. In their own fields, too, they grow vegetables and fruits which are intended only for their own use. Some of these are strange and quite unknown in Europe, and would never be used at all if better were available. But to many an African, Indian or Chinese the success or failure of his own strip of land is of more immediate importance

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

than the millions of acres of wheat or sugar or oil-bearing nuts that grow elsewhere. This reason alone it is well worth our while to look round those Empire countries live differently to see what mealtime means to some of them.

In spite of the great variety of export crops which are raised in the African colonies, the average peasant household relies in the main on a few staple foods grown by the family or village. But any attempt to speak of Africa as a whole is leading, since, not only are there many British colonies, but within them, even in the same area, there are many tribes. Each of these has its own traditions and customs

and two of them living side by side—Masai and the Kikuyu in East Africa, for instance—may belong to different groups, be quite unlike each other. Some people in Nigeria or the Gold Coast, are well civilized; others are not. So when we speak of an African village or household it can be only of some, whilst there may be many others which do not conform to the pattern. At the same time, there are certain factors common to all. Whilst most of the people are engaged in some form of agriculture, an increasing number is employed in other ways as labourers, railway workers, lorry drivers, machine operators, masons, clerks, teachers and in skilled professions. As education becomes more widespread and advanced the number thus employed increases.



Usually the African wife plants and maintains her own vegetable garden. Here a Baganda woman of Uganda brings home plantains—a staple food—from her patch.

In Northern and Southern Rhodesia, large numbers of African workmen are employed together. They live in barracks or quarters provided for them by the company which employs them, and eat either in canteens or from tins which are issued to them by their employers. In such areas, too, the way of life differs from that of the village life.

But in general, the African prefers to grow his own foodstuffs wherever he can and use them freely. Even in the towns people try to have a vegetable plot and if they cannot spend much time on it, his wife often will. From the earliest times he has

ALL these men earn wages. Since they cannot at the same time follow their own employment and supply their own food, they rely more and more on the market and shop. Moreover, as they have more money they can afford more luxuries—such as sugar, jam, tea and coffee—many of which are either manufactured or imported, and do not come straight from the soil. In the towns, therefore, the traditional life and food are changing and taking on more of the uniform pattern which we may find in other parts of the world. Again, in certain areas, particularly the mining districts of the Gold Coast



In Africa, as in other parts of that continent, food is prepared by the womenfolk. Here maize is ground into flour on the pestle and mortar principle. Yams, cassava, potato and okra are pounded into a mash in similar fashion before being shaped into a kind of pudding.



Workers at a sisal factory in Tanganyika receive their "rations" in mess tins and eat seated at a table in European fashion. Such changes from centuries old custom have had a far-reaching influence on the nature of the food itself.

accustomed to live simply on what he, with his wife and children, can grow on a small patch of land without the aid of expensive machinery or equipment. Before the days of easy travel it was necessary to live on what the immediate neighbourhood could provide, and even today most of the people still do so. There is, however, one absolute necessity which *must* be purchased—salt. In a tropical climate salt is not only a condiment, it is a physical necessity, and a man will consume as much as 4 oz. per week. Consequently, even in remote times there was a salt trade throughout Africa, and money or goods with which to obtain it had to be produced over and above the needs of the day.

No African village is complete without its vegetable gardens and fields which should yield enough to allow the women to trade in a nearby market. Food is essentially the women's province. It is the duty of an African wife not only to cook, but to keep her

family supplied with vegetables. The menfolk are responsible for the principal crops, especially for the planting, but much of the agricultural work is done by women.

When possible, the woman will plant her own garden near to the home so that she can attend to it at odd moments and can have her vegetables ready to hand. She will plant peas, beans, spinach, onions, marrows, okra, tomatoes, and various other annual vegetables. All these will be used in the soup; all are familiar to us save perhaps okra, a West African type of edible hibiscus that produces a seed pod like a small green carrot, two to three inches long. It is soft and sticky, and is a great favourite for thickening soups; it can be dried and ground to powder for sale in the market as a thickener. All these are women's plants. But farther afield in the bush, the men will have made a large clearing by cutting the trees and undergrowth and burning them. This is village land and each family has the use of a strip. They cultivate it with a wooden hoe, shaped and then hardened in the fire. This is a crude tool and laborious to handle but it is suited to tropical soils which neither need nor are improved by deep digging.

THE family field-strip will be used to grow the staple foods which form the bulk of the people's meals, and which must be produced in quantity so that they may be stored during the year. What this food may be depends on the soil and the climate; some places maize or millet; elsewhere potatoes, both the starchy and the sweet, plantains, or yams, or cassava. Where root crops are grown, room is provided between the rows for a further crop of vegetables or groundnuts, sowed and tended by the women. These are their property and they will probably trade part of them in the market.

Yams and cassava are local crops, eaten by the folk who grow them. In some areas they are as important to the African as loaves of bread are to the European.

and they serve much the same purpose. The yam is a giant tuber which may grow up to two feet long and weigh ten pounds though there are many varieties all differing in colour, size and, to the experienced taste, flavour. It is an annual plant, sown from



How Nigerians make their own sugar—juice crushed from the cane is heated in a primitive "oven"; when cool, it sets into brown cakes. In Uganda, honey is obtained by hanging up a hollowed-out tree trunk (left) in which wild bees start a colony.



seed on carefully prepared mounds. Above ground it produces a vinelike foliage which is trained upwards on tall poles eight feet high; below ground the tubers mature after four to five months. Both its cultivation and harvesting entail a good deal of work, and to be a successful yam-grower is the mark of a sound farmer. By tradition the yam is a man's plant, and it would be asking for trouble if it were planted by a woman, though she is permitted to dig it. After the yam harvest, a grain crop such as



millet can be successfully grown for the following season. The yam is a good starchy filling food. It can easily be stored, so that with a good supply the farmer need not go hungry between crops. Village barns are built for storage and if there are large and well stocked, maybe with hundreds or even thousands, it is a sign of good living and a well-organized community. Yams also make an admirable gift—especially since they vary so much in size that the gift can be carefully graduated. A generous chief may allow the poor to help themselves from his stock. But to steal even a single yam is reckoned one of the gravest and most contemptible of crimes.



In colonial territories—notably in East Africa—where cattle are reared, the white man's influence is being introduced. Dairy farming in Uganda, for example, has been much improved by the introduction of animals with European strains, and the demand for meat and milk is increasing.

Cassava is also a root or tuber, easier to grow but, perhaps for that reason, not so common. It is planted year by year from cuttings and so does not call for economy as the yam, whose seed must be purchased or carefully saved. A generally short fibre for use, but there are two varieties of which the long-stemmed is slow to mature but can be left in the ground for a year or more without damage; it also dries and dries for storage.

WITH this type of individual farming, one of the greatest problems is to keep the food supply constant throughout the year. For several months little or nothing is to be harvested; therefore it is particularly important to grow a few of the kinds of food—corn and yam, particularly—which can be stored. In Nigeria, where grain is the staple, it is stored in clay huts very like those in which people live, except that the only opening is a clay lid at the top. The peasant is well fed during the off-season periods as during the harvest period, and he never has to worry about starvation.

The African expects three meals a day, the evening meal generally heavier. Dinner is no uniform pattern—Fufu the main item, Olo the sauce (the names are Ibo, the language of a Nigerian tribe). Fufu is mainly starch, is dry, and the sauce and, incidentally, the porridge and yam. The meal, in fact, is fairly composed as a diet of mashed potatoes and gravy.

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

using pestles and stone mortars, and the meal boiled with water to make what can be described as porridge. This is the staple food of many tribes, particularly in Southern Sudan, Northern Nigeria, Northern Rhodesia, Tanganyika and parts of Uganda. It takes the place of the fufu dish already described. To a European taste, yam pudding is not exciting, but this porridge is particularly monotonous. In Sierra Leone local grown rice is common as the main dish, and all over the West Coast rice cooked in the manner of the Jollof tribe is considered a delicacy, partly no doubt because it takes on a couple of hours to prepare.

Beer and Palm Wine are the African Drink

The African has two native drinks, beer and palm wine. Beer is brewed from sprouted millet or plantains, and is the drink of East and Central Africa and of grain-growing areas of the South, such as Basutoland. A man's beer should be bitter, sweet beer is fit only for women. This beer is more than a mere pleasure drink; it is



Cassava is one of the staple foods of the West Indian colonies. In British Guiana (left) the tubers are scraped before cooking. In British Honduras (right) a heavy woman sits on a crude press to squeeze out the juice so that the cassava can be made into bread.

valuable item of diet which supplies yeast and similar beneficial bacteria. In the oil regions of West Africa palm wine is drunk. The trees are tapped—the bark being cut and the sap allowed to run into a cup or gourd—three times daily—in the early morning, mid-afternoon and at dusk. The good tapper works with clock-like regularity. It is a task which by long custom may be done by men only, although the juice is drunk by men and women. It is greyish-white and only mildly intoxicating, and it will not keep long as it rapidly changes into the form of vinegar. But if it is fermented it becomes a really strong drink for men.

Beer or palm wine is the necessary accompaniment to any social gathering and is the mark of hospitality and good-fellowship. The African is fond of conversation and company. Not only do the important occasions of life—birth, marriage and death—call for a celebration, but the members of the various societies of men and women

to entertain each other. Kola nuts have an almost ritual significance offered to a guest, and a bargain is made by the breaking of a kola nut to be shared by both parties. The West African has a special little ornamental bag, like a woman's hand bag, in which the kola nuts are carried. The Yoruba of Nigeria have a proverb: "Anger draweth arrows from the quiver, good words draw kolos from the bag."

At social gatherings—and at odd times in place of a meal—various starchy dishes may be eaten. Beancurd, fried groundnuts, roasted grain, wild fruits from the forest, nuts (particularly the palm), edible seeds such as beniseed or sesame (sesame) which supply fats and oil, pieces of sugar cane which are cut into



In the Cayman Islands, the deep-sea green turtle is kept in crawls—stockade-like enclosures sunk into the waters of shallow lagoons. Many are exported to the U.S.A.



A popular "dish" of British Honduras is the *pilla*, a Spanish word meaning little cake. It is in fact, a thin cake made of maize flour and baked on a hot, iron plate.

lengths and chewed. The sap of trees is pleasant and sweet, and small patches are often grown only for sucking raw. In addition, various minerals and edible earths are consumed to supply the necessary mineral salts, including calcium, which would otherwise be lacking. Experience has shown the African people that such things are needed from time to time to maintain the body's vigour, and here tribal custom and tradition play a part no less valuable because not fully understood. In the same way special plants, seeds and leaves are eaten in ill health or at certain periods of life, as, for instance, by women before their children are born.

But there are other and stranger delicacies. In many regions swarms of locusts may devastate whole areas of growing crops and leave a countryside barren in a few hours—but the locusts themselves are expertly caught and fried. Incidentally, they have a

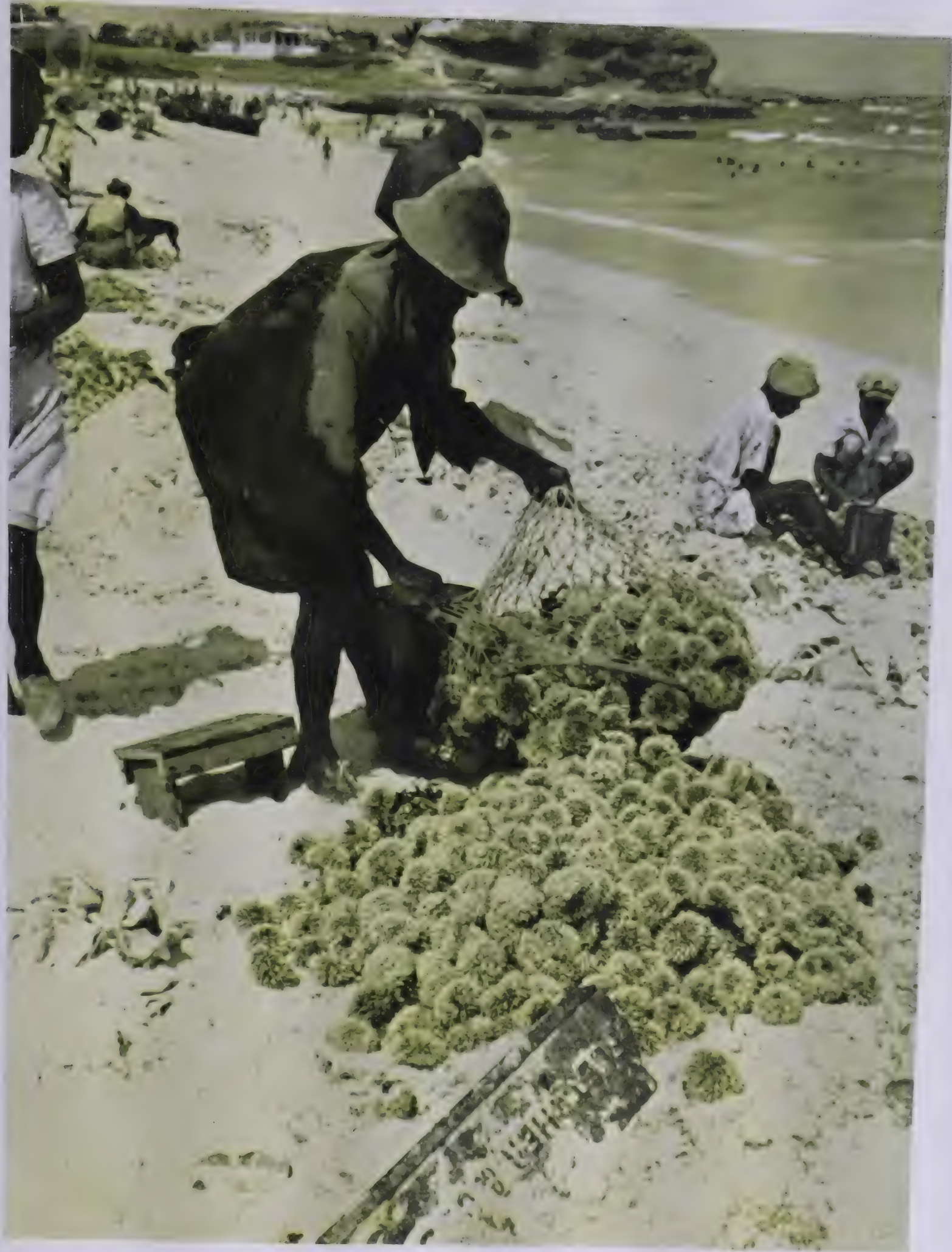


Arrowroot, most important crop on St. Vincent, is grown both for home use and for export. Over $1\frac{1}{2}$ million lbs. were sent to Britain in 1949. Here students from the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad are paying a visit of inspection to one of the plantations on the island.

high protein content and while they last are a good substitute for meat. Fried grasshoppers are something of a luxury. In Uganda, at certain seasons, swarms of tiny flies rise from the lakes so thickly that they look like smoke. These are pressed into cakes and fried. Oddest of all is the capture of termites or white ants which build a giant ant-hill several feet high. If a native finds such a hill in the bush he can stake a claim on it by marking it. At the right time, that is when the ants are fully grown with wings and just ready to fly out, he covers the mound with a blanket or piece of cloth, and taps it vigorously. The ants fly out in alarm and are caught in the blanket from which the women and girls pick them off by the wings as fast as they can, eating the bodies and discarding the rest.

THE extraordinary variety of living things which the African will eat suggests at once three things. So far from having an assured food supply, it has for generations been a problem of the utmost urgency to find enough to last from one harvest to the next. Then the staple food, whether grain porridge or pounded yams or cassava, lacks variety. Finally, their regular diet lacks protein in the form of meat or fish in adequate quantities.

Early travellers were astonished at the African's avidity for meat when they slaughtered big game, particularly the biggest of all, elephant. Even in earlier days when wild game was plentiful and unprotected by law, the Africans could never kill with sufficient regularity to ensure a proper supply, nor of course could they preserve the meat for any length of time even if there was a surplus. In modern times close settlement and cultivation have driven away the animals of the forest. Into the stewpot, therefore,



Emptying sea-eggs out of the hooped nets in which they are brought up by divers from submerged reefs off Barbados. The roes of these eggs are a popular dish in the island and taste very much like hen's eggs. They provide the local fishermen with a living in the hurricane season which prevents normal fishing.

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

go wild pig, baboon or monkey—only when a man is lucky, or grateful, if he bought in the market if a man has earned money by working on a machine. For in a rather haphazard fashion and will be killed for the pot only on some special occasions. These people who live by rivers, or by the lakes of Central and East Africa, can then diet with fish, and a few tribes eat little else. Dried stockfish from Senegal on the Central African Lakes is available, but this costs money. In general, natives of the bush and forest need to take every opportunity that offers—of locusts, caterpillars or ants—to supplement their ration of protein.

TWO great and well-known tribes follow an entirely different way of life—the Masai of East Africa and the Fulani of Nigeria. Both are herdsmen, and for their cattle which are their life and their wealth. As an index of progress, to keep up the numbers of their herds, which may run into thousands, therefore, of slaughtering for meat, the Masai have developed a method of drying the blood from the living animal. This can be done at intervals without damage to the animal. The blood is prepared in a special way, craked and eaten, and will also form part of their diet. The Masai, in particular, are strikingly well developed—half a foot above their vegetarian neighbours the Kikuyu.

The African whose meals have been described is the peasant cultivator living in the traditional style as his fathers lived before him, in villages or in the forest, or leading a semi-nomadic life with his cattle. But if he earns money for another—in the sale of cocoa or palm oil, he work in a company's plantations, or regular employment as a wage earner—so he will be able to afford more variety in his diet, and to eat what were formerly luxuries. If again he has been educated, perhaps employed as a clerk or professional man in a town, he will probably live in a European style according to his income.

IF he does this, will he be better or worse fed? There is no really straightforward answer. European meals are more varied and better balanced; they include more milk and eggs, and less starch. But, since they call for greater dependence on the market, they mean spending much more money. Thus the lower-paid African is not likely to afford a sound and balanced diet even though it is available. On the other hand, many of their traditional foods have been found, on analysis, to be especially rich in food values, while the European use of wheat flour, polished rice and other refined substances has definite disadvantages. The African habit of using vegetables fresh from the garden, and of trying to grow such vegetables wherever possible, even in town, is scientifically sound. Against this, many tribes do not use what they have as fully as they might for no better reason than sheer conservatism. Some dislike milk and some keep chickens and will not eat either them or their eggs. On balance, it seems up to us to say that whilst a great many Africans have abundant food products, many Europeans on the West Coast would not be without "goats or pigs or poultry or palm oil or chips."

What has been said about the African adopting European ways of eating is particularly true in the islands of the West Indies. Here the original inhabitants were a very small minority of the present population, and the European settlers brought with them a great deal of foodstuffs and a great deal of knowledge of food preparation. The native population, however, has been largely exterminated, and the European population has grown to a large number. The native population has been largely exterminated, and the European population has grown to a large number. The native population has been largely exterminated, and the European population has grown to a large number.

What the West Indians Eat

They have brought with them many African ways, but they have been their traditional life for generations so that we must not expect to find it spread with jungle fast. What we should find, unhappily, is that many people had very little dinner to spread it all.

Number of the smaller West Indian islands are not very productive, whilst some have a higher population than the land can well support. The extensive plantation crops—sugar, bananas, cocoa, coffee—leave the islands liable for growing food for the inhabitants themselves. On the other hand coconuts and citrus fruit (lemons and oranges) are plentiful and afford food and vitamins. Wheat bread is general, and rice, maize, yams, cassava and are raised for local use. There is abundance of tropical fruits such as mango and guava; vegetables like tomatoes, pumpkins, beans and peas, okra, and callaloo (spinach) are grown. Tea and coffee are generally used, but locally grown cocoa is a staple drink and more nourishing. At the same time the plentiful supply of sugar, both in the form of cane juice and molasses, is a great asset to the everyday diet.

the Deccan grinding miller with a primitive
le their home of bamboo matting. Their life is
often they are underfed and ill-nourished

Photo: H. D. K. K.



By the sea, and here the smaller islands have the advantage, enough fish can be caught to make up for the lack of meat. Among the fish regularly taken are flying fish, snapper, grouper and mullet. In Trinidad also the fresh-water caracaras is available. Both sea and land crabs are freely eaten; on some islands edible fruit and leaves (a kind of bread) are popular, and in Trinidad the ground nut (olive a squirrel) goes into the pie, as does the armadillo in British Honduras. Barbados has a special fishery for sea urchins, or sea urchins as they are called. These have a spine covering which is split open and the meat extracted. Sixty or seventy urchins are then packed in a shell and steamed for about an hour. This makes an attractive dish rich in vitamins, and eaten only a few people. Shellfish are also gathered in season, and in some of the summer months



Many of the ingredients for his curry are obtained by the Indian at the local market. Here — at Secunder — garlic, ginger and turmeric may be seen among those laid out for sale. The inverted baskets on y furnish the vendors with shelter from the sun.

PHOTOGRAPH BY



WINE is made in several Commonwealth and Empire countries. Both South Africa and Cyprus export it, as does Greece. These noble grapes were grown in Paarl country in Cape Province, where vines have been cultivated for over 250 years.

4 Problems of India and Pakistan

... raw with lime juice, pepper and onion, is a staple dish.
... islands of the West Indies grow arrowroot, a tuber which, like cassava,
... but which if carefully prepared produces the most digestible form of
... known. It is consumed locally, and also exported principally in its
... pure form for use as a medicinal diet.

... all know Indian curry powder—and with that you will know how the
... Indian dines. His normal two meals a day, at mid-morning and at evening,
... and rice, or curry and chapatties, for most of his days. The average of the
... villages of less than 5,000 inhabitants, and most of these depend on their
... for a living. Even so, India relies on the import of rice from Burma and
... to supply her people, and the standard of nutrition is low. Rice itself is
... the food, though in the form of paddy (that is, with the outer skin of the
... it contains many vitamins which are lost when the skin is removed and the
... ed. But for commercial purposes, and for export, polished rice is more

... cakes are thin, lightly baked patties of unleavened flour, either wheat or
... flour is mixed with water to form dough, rolled and flattened between the
... hands and then baked on the spot. Curry as used by the Indian peasants is
... grinding spices in a mortar or on a flat stone, some of the principal ingredi-
... pepper, ginger, turmeric, and various edible leaves and herbs. These are
... for flavouring, but for their considerable food value and the mineral salts
... contain. Into the curry go beans and peas, green vegetables, and whatever
... able—but the Hindu will not eat beef in any form, whilst the Muslim is not
... touch pork or any pig products. Goat is widely used, and mutton is the
... chickens are excellent for currying if they can be had. But, in general, the
... man's consumption of meat in any form, and of secondary foods, including
... too small.

... DNLTS are being increasingly grown locally, and their inclusion in the diet
... is strongly advocated by advertisement nutrition. Lentils are extensively grown
... and dried. The commonest form of fat is ghee—clarified butter when made from
... . Curds and soured milk (yoghurt) are also eaten. The sugar cane is much
... farmers; if only in small quantity, it will probably be cut into lengths and the
... sucked. If the farmer has a larger plot, the cane will be crushed in hand mills
... down in open pans to form a brown candy called gur. Sweetmeats and sweets
... sold in the bazaars and are provided for fairs and special occasions but, of
... cost money. Tea is drunk at any time, heavily sweetened. Fruit drinks are
... popular, particularly with Muslims, who may not drink intoxicants. Along
... the coconut is a valuable addition to the diet, and in some parts is almost
... ed. Fish, too, are caught locally, the roet, a type of large mullet, being
... and the crabs. Where fish are eaten, the people show a marked physical
... nt. In certain areas dates are plentiful; they have a high water content and
... a nutrient food. The crown of the date palm can be bleb, like the coconut palm,
... called toddy, and is a common drink. Occasionally it is boiled down to make

... Indian peasant labours under many disadvantages. His cultivable land is
... pelated, and the soil has been exhausted from centuries of cropping without
... ousishment being replaced. He is hithelowed by tradition, reluctant to em-



Malay men bargaining for fish at the quayside at Kuala Trengganu on the east coast of Malaya. Here, where the population is predominantly Malay, fish is a food of first importance and the catching of it remains the leading industry.

something new, and particularly in do so because of the burden of debt on the moneylender. The man between his production and the latest necessities of life is not small; he has little or nothing to make any cash. Tens of millions depend much on rice that the crop of a single crop may fail, and the crisis is to tip the balance over just enough to eat too.

The Government of India and Pakistan are to improve these conditions by endeavouring to increase the village food supply, encourage the consumption of foods other than rice and, in general, such increase only be secured if the land made to yield higher returns.

To achieve this proved manuring and selection of the best seed plant and the best animal from which to breed come the first need. But the seed is much harder—no peasant by example, instruction and, perhaps,

compulsion, to employ these things in the right way. Both the Government scientists of India and Pakistan are striving to tackle the problem, but ultimately is the peasant himself who will decide whether the masses of the people stay as are, or the level of their food supply is to be raised to the standards of the great Commonwealth countries.

Importance of Fish and Rice in Malay

The Malayan peninsula has seen many waves of invaders. There are, according to one but several peoples and cultures, with little connection between the Malay and the primitive Siam of the jungle. But the Malay is himself an invader, brought from the North customs of Indian origin and the Muslim religion. Then within a century many Europeans have come to live in the country, and the Chinese also settled there in large numbers. So today Malaya presents a triangular culture—Chinese and British.

the staple diet of both Malays and Chinese, though it is widely grown only in Singapore but many of the natives need to import it. A canga is one pound of rice daily but this was not available after 1939-45. The Malay also grows rice, beans, green vegetables, and cassava which is prepared in the sate. For this, the rice is ground, and the starch strained off and left to crystallize. In this form, it is exported to Europe as a nutrition dish. The Muslim Malay will not eat pork; he keeps chickens, cows and pigs on ceremonial occasions.



The Ika, tribesmen of northern Malaya are equipped with the blowgun with which they kill forest animals for food. Meats are cooked in the communal fires where they often live in huts.

Even in its more important in life diet man meat. The Malay of the coast—and Malaya has an enormous—

Malaya—is a great fisherman. His boats are sharply arched with high projecting bows and sterns, gaily painted in bright colors and often elaborately carved. They are rigged with a square sail. The fishing is intensive, for they are small and the men unwilling to spend days and nights at sea. Fishermen have ingenious fish traps with an array of bamboo stakes leading the fish into them calls for great skill. The catch is varied; eels, squid and mullet, the larger fish and pilchards, sprats and anchovies among the small fry, are small sea-pike, sculpin and many more are caught in the nets. Once caught, they

Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

become the subject of intense haggling. Most of the catch is disposed of on the beach to housewives, small traders and agents. Bargaining is keen, at so many "tails" Malay dollar. Even children learn to buy and sell fish and make a good bargain. Much of the fish is bought by merchants, either to be dried and salted, or to pound with salt into a crude fish paste. Both are traded inland at a considerable profit.

Fish in one form or another enters largely into the diet of both Malays and Chinese. But so many people are employed on the estates for money wages that the number of those who purchase their food instead of growing it is rising rapidly. The commercial ability of the Chinese has increased this tendency. Thus European styles are replacing the old ways—as in the wider use of bread, tea and coffee, jam, and tinned goods. But for the Malay and the Chinese, however, rice remains the indispensable dish.

IN the valleys between the forest-covered hills of the interior, live the Sakai. In their small settlements they practise agriculture on the "shifting cultivation" principle, clearing and burning a patch, and digging it with a pointed stick. Rice, millet, cassava are planted, and probably sweet potatoes and bananas the second year; but after three or four years the jungle will have invaded the clearing and it will be abandoned. The Sakai's main larder is the forest, their principal resource the bamboo. From it they build their houses, make cooking vessels and waterpots, and the equivalent of pots and pans, kettles, bottles and jars.

But perhaps most important of all, it furnishes the deadly blow-gun. This consists of a slender tube, built up of sections and polished inside—the "bore"—which is fitted inside a wider "barrel" for protection and given a mouthpiece. The dart is a thin strip of the rib of a palm leaf, one end being fitted with a pith wad, the other pointed and tipped with a deadly vegetable poison—the boiled down sap of the Upas tree. The dart is blown with a sharp expulsion of breath on the same principle as an air-gun. Monkeys, deer, wild pig and even tiger fall to these lethal weapons which can be used with great accuracy at short range, and are silent. The poison kills after a few minutes, and once the flesh round the wound is cut away, the meat is undamaged.

Primitive as the Sakai are, they are well-off compared to the shy Pygmies. They are an old, but dying race, here and in Africa, estimated at but 2,000 in all Malaya. Their life is one with the animals of the jungle—cultivation is hardly practised for they do not stay long enough in one place to sow and reap a harvest. The women dig forest roots, such as fern, and gather wild fruit with a bamboo pole, or collect grubs, snakes, lizards, and the like. The men use a crude bow and arrow or a blow-gun copied from the Sakai to kill squirrels, monkeys or forest deer. The meat is roasted over a fire, the roots boiled in the ashes, whilst rice is boiled in bamboo tubes stood beside the fire.

Plentiful Resources of the Pacific Islands

On many of the Pacific islands the people live very much as they did before the coming of the European, save only that the constant warfare and slaughter between village and another is no longer possible. The islanders are blessed with two unfailing assets, the coconut palm and the sea. In addition they have plantains, breadfruit, chestnuts, durians, pawpaws and other fruit growing wild. In the gardens are grown taro, manioc, sweet potato and bananas. In the streams are prawns and shellfish, on the shores turtle. Inland wild pig, and occasionally wild cow, can be hunted, while tree lizards, flying foxes and land crabs are caught and eaten. At certain seasons the coconut crab, a fierce-looking creature that can climb the palms, tear down the



Plant foods of the Pacific. 1. Young sago palm: the pulp obtained from inside the trunk of the fully grown tree furnishes a nutritious, starchy building material. 2. *Diospyros* is prickly red and offensive smell; the juicy interior of the durian has a pleasant taste. 3. Planting taro in Fiji: a bet in holes in well-irrigated soil.



Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

and crack them with its vice like claws, migrates in hordes from inland to the sea. These, fat with coconut flesh, are captured and roasted.

Taro is a root not unlike a large potato and is the commonest vegetable grown. The spear shaped leaves can be boiled and eaten, but the tuber, pink or purple in colour with white flesh, is the chief harvest. Taro requires more water than yam, and is cultivated in beds made swampy by irrigation, known as taro ponds. It can also be grown in dry gardens, by planting in holes kept well watered. As in Africa, the yam is popular, although it ranks second to taro. Pacific yams often reach a great size. In many places a large, coarse variety grows wild, but to be reduced to digging wild yams is a sign of poverty and inability to manage one's affairs properly.

MANIOC is a type of cassava, the root of a shrub like plant which grows both wild and cultivated. It is poisonous in its raw state, and must be soaked and well cooked before it can be eaten. Often it is prepared as tapioca. A similar starchy pudding material which we obtain from the Pacific is sago. This, however, is the pulp of a palm tree nearly as high as the coconut palm, but thicker. When the tall trunk has grown, it flowers, bearing large nuts of great hardness; but once it has borne fruit the palm dies. If just before flowering the tree be cut and the trunk split, it will be found full of pulp. This is scooped out, pounded, washed and strained, when it becomes easily digestible starch. One palm will yield 600 pounds of sago which would more than satisfy a man for a whole year. Sago is a staple food in New Guinea and it can be dried, baked and kept for long periods. It is exported from Malaya and Sarawak.

Native meals consist of a large mound or pudding of cooked starchy vegetable enlivened with a rich sauce. The pudding may be yam, manioc, sweet potato, breadfruit, or green bananas or plantains, the latter being regarded as the poor man's dish. The pudding may be sweetened by the addition of crushed almonds. One method is to mash the vegetables and wrap the dough in leaves, then bake them in an oven of hot stones covered with earth. Baked puddings are preferred to the less troublesome ones boiled in pots. The sauce is on a base of coconut cream squeezed from the fresh ripe pulp, with taro leaves, fish, prawns, beans, egg plant, nuts and pork broth if available stewed together. When both are ready, the pudding is served on banana leaves, a hole is scooped in it and the sauce poured in. The correct procedure is to take your morsel, with the fingers of course, so that the sauce runs down and, as the pudding diminishes, it becomes saturated with the gravy.



One of the methods employed by Pacific islanders to cook their food is to wrap it in a covering of leaves and bake it in an oven of hot stones or a pit of hot ashes. Here a Fijian is completing the first part of this treatment to a young shark.

the preparation of the South Seas drink known as kava is attended by elaborate ceremony. It is made from yangona roots pounded to a paste. In Fiji, where only men take part in the ritual, this paste is placed in a special bowl with water and kneaded (right), the resulting liquid being strained frequently before it is ready.



In the larger islands fruit is varied and profuse. It does not form part of the regular feast, but is eaten as "light refreshment." One of the favourites is the durian, a large fruit with a spiked case, filled with evil-smelling but luscious pulp. Guava, mango, wild plums and citrus fruit all help to supply vitamins and sugar. The coconut, well as providing the coconut cream in daily use, can be turned to many purposes. The sweet jelly of the unripe nut is eaten by children; later on the nut may yield a quart of rich cool milk, so that a drink may be had anywhere at any time. The ripe flesh is grated, pounded, roasted or boiled. From its flower shoots toddy is collected; the shoot is bent over into a cup and the end shaved off morning and evening. The sap that flows in quantity is rich in sugar; it can be drunk fresh, or allowed to ferment so that the sugar turns to alcohol and the resulting drink is intoxicating. But this must be drunk soon, or the alcohol may turn to vinegar.

Social Significance of the Pacific Pig

Although everyone keeps pigs, the native does not get a regular diet of meat. Pigs are for display, a mark of social distinction. Moreover, the worth of a pig is assessed not by its weight or its value as pork, but by the elegance of its tusks which are encouraged to grow and are trained into fantastic spirals. The islanders have few cares, and the fascinating hobby of pig-keeping and tusk-training provides competition and interest. But the odd thing is that a man is judged not so much by the number of fine pigs he possesses as by the number he *kills*. Generally speaking the Pacific islanders are a hospitable people and value a man by the feasts he gives. Thus the leader, the wealthiest man, is he who in his lifetime has slaughtered the greatest number of well-tusked pigs for his neighbour's benefit.

Those who have lived with the islanders have described these feasts. For days or even weeks beforehand the host is engaged in assembling his pigs and collecting taro, for a small feast with maybe one hundred and fifty guests, ten or twenty pigs and a few thousand roots of taro will serve; but really notable feasts are spoken of when 800 pigs and 20,000 taro were consumed. The giving of such a "barquet" puts a man on the highest social rung among the islanders and as a memory of feasts that have been given, the skulls and tusks of the pigs are preserved and hung in the feast-giver's



AT this re-
in Tonga
May 1950 to
the 20th and
Queen Salote
tablets given
over 200 years
trained - we
sucking pig
by lobsters,
baked fish &
puifings. I
long shelves
to house &
was never
native. I
(above) we
was similar
served at the
table. Food
after the
divided an
lous family
(16)

icate Ritual of the Kava Ceremony

collections in the case of an old man who has done well may reach specimens

Larry Lake, a former High Commissioner for the Western Pacific, has recorded

of a feast given in his honour by the Queen of Tonga in 1916. At all times the ground, on mats, and not at all with our fingers. In front of each group was an enormous Mat, perhaps six feet long and three feet wide, made of beaten leaves and carefully packed with food. The group of women were pages—girls of all ages and shapes, spotted and stained white over the body in the ground and food with stones. . . . There must have been about 200 guests, and a almost as many as if there were. Then there were turkeys steamed in banana leaves, chickens cooked in various



Women and children of the island of New Britain (which comes within the Trust Territory of New Guinea administered by Australia) return from a river with containers of water accompanied by their pig. In the South Seas this animal is as much a mark of social position as a source of food.

(Source: U.S. Government of Hawaii)

ceremonial occasion the drink is kava, brewed from the roots of wild pepper. Making is a ritual. The roots are washed and then a paste which is made of water. In the old days the root was chewed to pulp, but now it is beaten to pulp in a mortar. On

the task is done by young girls, but in Fiji only men may take part. The ceremony demands three principal celebrants—the mixer, his assistant and the cup-bearer. The brew is put into a ceremonial bowl and water is poured in by the mixer who knows the brew. Meanwhile a ritual chorus is chanted by the elders. As the mixing is done the liquid is strained several times through a mesh of banana leaves, the mixer then uses the strainer to his assistant who washes it, then the brew is ready. The mixer claps his hands. All clap hands. The cup-bearer fills a polished coconut shell; all the guests have a small individual bowl ready. The first fills the bowl of the chief guest, or of the highest dignitary present, who then drinks. In some parts, it is correct first to scatter a few drops on the floor as an offering to the gods; in Fiji the chief guest should, after drinking, spin his bowl around

"From a South Sea Story" by Larry Lake, for the Bulletin of the Pacific Islands

the floor. Then the rest drink. Speech-making follows. All feel at peace with the world, for the making and drinking of kava is a sign of peace and friendship.

Although few parts of the Pacific islands are far from the sea, only those living by the shore can fish regularly, for the jungle does not encourage rapid movement from place to place. It happens also that the villages on the shores are often so crowded that the people have no room for gardens. Thus a regular trade has grown up whereby the dwellers inland grow yams, taro and other vegetables in excess of their requirements in order to barter them for the turtle and fish which are caught on the shores. The natives are very clever at spearing fish in the shallow lagoons, but more exciting is the fish drive. This has to be organized since many people take part. They wade quietly and gently into the shallow water, forming a large circle. Some have flat boards, some have nets. At a given signal all yell, splash and beat the water with their boards. The fish, terrified by the din and commotion, come to the surface, leap out of the water and are caught in hundreds by the net-men. It is a scene of wild excitement, both of fish and men, very unlike quiet angling by an English stream.

BUT the native can be quiet, also, when he trails a line from his canoe over calm waters, baited for octopus or bonito. He is quiet, too, when he uses the throw net. This is for small fish, and is a fine-meshed circle of net with the rim weighted with sinkers all round and a cord at the centre. The fisherman goes softly and slowly, and throws the net so that it spreads full out upon the water, when the sinkers fall, and as he draws it slowly towards him by the cord fastened to the centre, the net closes. Or he may go for flying fish by night, using a torch to attract them so that they fly blindly into waiting nets. Strong young men catch turtles by diving upon them in the shallows, holding their forelegs and head with its sharp horny beak, and bringing them to the surface. In these operations in shallow water there are dangerous as well as wholesome fish: the scorpion fish with long spikes, the stingray with venomous tail, or the stone fish, barely visible among the coral in which it lurks, with spines so poisonous that they can kill. Even the giant clam, embedded in the coral, may drown a man unlucky enough to be caught by the foot in its closing shell, but if it can be prised open there is plenty of good meat inside.

The coral lagoons of the Pacific are the home of one of the most curious



Among the projects sponsored by Britain's Colonial Development Corporation is the development of fisheries in the Seychelles, in particular the catching of sharks for their vitamins and skins. Here is one of the specially equipped vessels converted from a minesweeper—commissioned for this work.



ers lined up in readiness for the greatest mass harvesting ever carried out in Australia—the first of sorghum from the Peak Downs farm which is run jointly by the Queensland Government and the British Overseas Food Corporation. (See also illustration on page 20.)

Courtesy of the Government of Australia

in the world. Deep in the recesses of the coral there is a worm, Bololo (or Palolo), green, some nine inches long. Once a year, on some dawn in the last quarter of the moon, all the Bololo will rise at once until the surface of the sea is a tangled mass of myriads of worms. It is the end of their life cycle; they rise to lay eggs, but after a couple of hours they literally melt in the sun and dissolve in the sea. But not if the natives have judged the day of their rising correctly, whether by following the advice of wise old chiefs or by constant watch. Then the canoes are out as Bololo covers the sea it is scooped up to make a rich but transient breakfast once a year. Cooked Bololo has been described as not unlike spinach flavoured with oysters.

The U.N. Food & Agriculture Organization

Food was one of the first subjects to receive the attention of the United Nations. Before the United Nations organization was formed in San Francisco in 1945, representatives of several nations had met together in 1943 at Hot Springs in the United States of America and drawn up plans for co-ordinating world food supplies and distributing them fairly to the free and liberated countries after the war; and the body charged with the duty of carrying out these plans, the Food and Agriculture Organization, was the first of the permanent international organizations of the United Nations to come into being. It was born at Quebec in Canada in October 1945, and a leading figure in its creation was Sir John Boyd-Orr (later created Lord Boyd-Orr), the British expert in nutrition, who was chosen the first director-general of the F.A.O., serving in that capacity from 1945 until 1948.

The objects of the F.A.O. are to procure and arrange all the information possible about the food supplies and the food needs of member countries; to help in sharing out the food supplies fairly; and to advise members on crops to be planted, ways of



It would be interesting to know whether the study could be expanded. Currently, it is experimenting with serial and parallel. Here an *Amegilla* female carrying a 1.014-wg. "part" of brood in the form of pollen.

ning Increased Food Production

years ago Lord Lugard, one of the greatest of Britain's Colonial administrators of tropical Africa: "On the one hand, the increasing wealth of the earth must be developed for the benefit of mankind in general; an obligation rests on the Governing Powers, not only to safeguard the of the natives but to promote their moral and educational progress." These words we can better understand the purpose of two British Acts which immediately concern us—the Colonial Welfare and Development and the Overseas Resources Development Act of 1942.

was an enlargement of an earlier Act which was never fully in operation during the war of 1933-45. By it, 120 million pounds was allocated, to be spent over years solely on Colonial development. Each separate territory was called up a Ten-Year Development Plan showing what schemes it wished to do, how much they would cost, and what proportion of the cost would be borne by the territory and what amount would be provided by the Colonial Development and Finance Fund. These schemes are of many kinds—new roads, improved railways, improved medical services—but all are designed to help the Colonies to develop their own resources better. Some of the schemes are directly connected with food production, others are indirectly so. In our present complicated civilization both agriculture and industry must work together. Thus, more efficient industry will produce more tools and machinery; a larger chemical industry will produce more fertilizers; improved transport will help to get food-producing machines to remote districts; better education will enable

How the African is learning to improve the quality and output of his country's products scientifically. In the laboratory of the Nigerian palm oil mill, local workers test the oil and kernels daily under white supervision.

made of agricultural research; improved irrigation will enable the farmer to secure a fair return. Above all, better health is the first requisite of any work to be done, and this is impossible without health.

So we come back to the fact that our Colonies must produce food. These developments are not intended to make a profit, but to lay a foundation. This takes time, well be fully ten years to get the full benefit of this Act.

The Overseas Resources Development Act set up two Corporations: the Colonial Development Corporation and the Overseas Food Corporation. The Colonial Development Corporation started with a Government grant of 110 million pounds and is financed under-



Food from the Commonwealth and Empire

takings which were expected in the long run to pay for themselves and even to make a profit. The Corporation operates very like a large commercial company, except that the working capital is provided by the Government and the profits will not be paid to shareholders but used to finance additional projects. Also, unlike most commercial companies, it does not engage in only one type of work or in any one country.

By the end of 1950, the Colonial Development Corporation had in hand forty-six different undertakings in which it had invested more than £28,000,000 capital. Some of these undertakings related to the development of timber resources, coal and other mineral deposits, hydro-electric power; many of them had to do with increasing food production. Sea fisheries and agricultural projects were, for instance, organized in Nigeria; arable farming and lake fisheries were assisted in Nyasaland, cocoa and banana were planted in British Honduras; cool stores and packing stations were built to help the citrus fruit industry in Jamaica and Dominica; production of salt was undertaken in the Turks and Caicos Islands; sea fisheries were developed from Gibraltar; and in the Falkland Islands meat freezing apparatus was installed so that export of mutton could be added to that of wool and leather from the many sheep that graze there. A cattle ranch, and an abattoir and freezing plant, were established in Bechuanaland, the avowed purpose of which was to set up a production and marketing organization to supply the immediate meat requirements of the peoples of African territories.

The Colonial Development Corporation concentrates on mechanized farming and the scientific raising of livestock, establishes subsidiary industries to provide the necessary fertilizers and feeding stuffs, and develops derivative industries to manufacture the raw food products—producing, for example, condensed milk, tinned meat, or fruit juice extracts. It feels its way carefully, sometimes undertaking the organization and management of a scheme through government authorities only, sometimes working with local private enterprises. It has losses, such as that incurred on the over-optimistically planned poultry scheme in The Gambia which had to be drastically modified in scope, but it is only fair that these should be considered in relation to the widespread nature of the Corporation's activities as a whole.

The Queensland-British Food Corporation

The Overseas Food Corporation, whose East African groundnuts scheme is described on page 59, had more success with another ambitious scheme carried out in Queensland, Australia, in co-operation with the Queensland government, for the growing of sorghum, or millet, on a large scale for use in fattening pigs, both locally and in Britain. The Queensland-British Food Corporation has control of 700,000 acres of open country of which Peak Downs, some 200 miles inland from Rockhampton, is the centre. The soil is good, but the rainfall is poor and not very reliable. In the first year, 1949, the Corporation planted and harvested 29,300 acres. Frosts at harvest time damaged the crop, but 6,000 tons of millet reached Britain. In 1950, a harvest was reaped from 66,000 acres, and 24,000 tons of millet were sent to Britain. More thousands of tons went to the Corporation's two piggeries at Bajool, some 20 miles from Rockhampton, and Moura, 100 miles from Rockhampton. On the land still under grass, the Corporation fattened thousands of beef cattle. All the workers in these projects are white Australians; they numbered about 400 in 1950 and some of them earned more than £14 a week.

Such experiments are supplemented by increased research all round on agricultural problems. This is necessary in three principal directions—to combat disease, to find the best manner of handling each plant or animal, and to discover the lines along which

are action and development will be most
ful. Much of this research work is carried
in Britain—in the laboratories of the
ous Universities, in the Royal Botanical
Garden at Kew, in the Museum of Natural
History at South Kensington, and at the
Government agricultural research
experimental stations throughout the
country. The chief Empire centre outside
Britain is the Imperial College of Tropical
Agriculture in Trinidad, where highly quali-
fied scientists from Colonial territories are
trained and can conduct large-scale experi-
ments under tropical conditions.

At the same time the Colonial Develop-
ment and Welfare Act made generous
provision both for financing local experi-
mental centres in various territories, and for
directing investigations into special prob-
lems. Here are some of these undertakings:
a Rice Experimental Station in Sierra Leone,
and also a Marine Fisheries Research
Station for the whole of West Africa; an
East African Agriculture and Forestry Re-
search Organization and a parallel Veterinary
Research Organization in Kenya; a Fish-
culture Centre in Penang, Malaya, and a
Marine Fisheries Research Station in Hong
Kong, where 50,000 people are engaged in
the fishing industry. Special research groups
carry out investigations in connection with
the storage of groundnuts in Nigeria, on
fertilizers in Tanganyika, and on the use of
aircraft to spray insecticides in Uganda and
Tanganyika. A special research mission was
sent to the Gold Coast to investigate and
suggest a cure for the "swollen shoot"
disease in cocoa, (a subject studied also by
experts of the F.A.O.). Another mission
worked in Zanzibar and Pemba on "Sudden
Death" which has blighted the clove industry.
Locusts are studied in exhaustive detail
by a special research group in the British
Museum of Natural History in London, and
are actively combated in the field by
the Desert Locust Survey Department in
East Africa. In Central Africa the campaign
against the red locust, intended to destroy



In Uganda, research has been carried out on
the major cattle disease for many years. Here
there is being inoculated to control rinderpest.



Training is given to agricultural instructors at
several colonial centres. Students examine a
termite nest at the Imperial College of Tropical
Agriculture, Trinidad (above). A poultry-keeping
class at Njala College, Sierra Leone (below).





Testing insecticidal fog means of checking the spread of tsetse fly by trains in Africa. Five flies are placed in a gauze cage (and left, which is then attached to a train (right) which steams through the fog screen. An 85 per cent. kill rate.

the swarms in source before they grate to spread in the Congo and Africa, is conducted from an international centre at Aberystwyth, Northern Rhodesia, Belgium, the Union of South Africa, Southern Rhodesia and the

African Colonies all share in this work which is for the benefit of all of them.

But international co-operation has been extended beyond the destruction of tsetse. In Africa, France, Belgium, Portugal, Egypt and Ethiopia are all vitally concerned in problems that equally affect large territories. In some cases, such as to check the spread of disease, only joint action by all at once can be of real value. Rinderpest, a destructive and highly infectious disease of cattle which can be spread by the movement not only of domestic cattle but of wild game, has in the past caused untold loss and suffering in all the countries mentioned above, together with the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Southern Rhodesia, the Union of South Africa and the various British Colonies. A conference was held in Nairobi in 1948. It decided on common measures to be put into effect by all to eradicate, or at least control this disease by mass vaccination of cattle by inoculation, and by preventing movement from infected territory to another. Other international conferences have been held in Africa, on soils, on plant diseases and on the tsetse fly responsible for the devastating *trypanosomiasis* (sleeping sickness in man, nagana in cattle).

This international co-operation has taken another interesting form in the Indies where there has been established a joint body, the Caribbean Commission

Work of the Caribbean Commission

ring the United Kingdom, France, the Netherlands and the United States, to and to investigate matters of common interest to their West Indian possessions. This Commission issues from time to time valuable reports on agricultural subjects. A consultative body, the South Pacific Commission, does parallel work in that France, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Australia, New Zealand and the United States work together here. Such ready co-operation in Colonial affairs between nations and development, and since problems of climate, vegetation, diseases of plants and animals, and the general productivity of the soil are common to all the islands in the group, whatever flag they may fly, the pooling of their joint experience and the common practice of remedial measures should mark a great advance for all.

In agricultural development the Dominions also are playing their part; each has programmes of research, in part in connection with their universities, and in part, like the Tea Research Institute of Ceylon, which specialize on crops of local importance.

The whole world is short of food, even if no dislocation of production and transport occurred. International wars, civil wars as in China, increase scarcity. Countries of the Commonwealth and Empire that were outside the battlegrounds of the war of 1914-18 were spurred on to expand their food production more rapidly than before; but Japan, particularly Malaya, suffered a severe check. Four Dominions contribute to the staple foods of the world: Canada, Australia, New Zealand and the Union of South Africa. At the same time the population of the world is rising. In the ten years 1945-1955, the people of India and Pakistan increased by 47½ million, of the Commonwealth by 10 million, and of Britain by 2½ million. Production per head of population is widely different: in the United Kingdom it is £164 per person annually; in Jamaica £58; in the Gold Coast £17, and in Nigeria only £4.

It is clear why, after the war, great efforts were made to increase the yield of agriculture, especially in Africa. Three urgent problems everywhere are to combat erosion, so that ground is not lost as fast as it is gained; to eradicate pests of man and beast, such as the Tsetse fly; and to improve the yield of staple grain crops, particularly by developing strains that will grow well in drier and hotter climates. The first great step is to raise nutritional standards where these are low; and an international body has been set up to assist this aim in the Consultative Committee for Economic Aid for South-East Asia. Founded in Colombo, Ceylon, in January 1950, as a Commonwealth organization, it was later joined by the United States and by other S.E. Asian countries. It is working with food, credits and long-term plans of co-operation to improve the living conditions of the poorest peoples of a crowded area—both inside and outside the Commonwealth.

The vigour with which many plans of development are being pursued, the battle of the world's food supply will be a hard and a long one. It is being fought on many fronts at once, and all too often gains in one direction are offset by losses in another. It is wrong to regard it as a battle of Man against Nature; if it is to be won, it must be by Man with Nature as an ally. We do not yet fully understand our ally, and as we learn how to co-operate with her the greater will be our success. At the front, governments, agricultural departments and scientists are the generals. The peasants are the foot soldiers—whether they be European, Indian, African, Chinese or any other—who are closest to Nature. In the end it will be these who will determine the issue.

INDEX

[illegible]

Country	Commodity	Unit	Price
Algeria	Almonds	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Apples	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Barley	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Berries	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Bonbons	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Bread	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Buckwheat	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Cashew Nuts	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Chestnuts	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Cocoa Beans	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Coffee	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Corn	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Cumin	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Dates	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Flax	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Figs	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Grapes	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Guavas	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Hazelnuts	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Herbs	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Indigo	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Jams	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Kidney Beans	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Lentils	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Liquorice	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Mangoes	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Maple Syrup	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Medicines	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Milk	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Molasses	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Mustard	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Nutmeg	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Oats	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Onions	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Oranges	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Peanut Oil	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Peanut Meal	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Pears	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Pistachios	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Potatoes	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Pumpkins	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Raspberries	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Rice	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Rosin	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Saffron	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Sage	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Salt	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Shallots	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Strawberries	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Sugar	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Tapioca	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Tartar	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Tea	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Turnips	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Vanilla	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Wheat	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Yams	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Zucchini	100 lbs	1.00
Algeria	Other	100 lbs	1.00

PEACHES

Index

Almond	12 14 15
Apricot	12 14 15
Apple	12 14 15
Banana	12 14 15
Blackberry	12 14 15
Blueberry	12 14 15
Bran	12 14 15
Bread	12 14 15
Buckwheat	12 14 15
Cashew	12 14 15
Cherry	12 14 15
Chestnut	12 14 15
Cocoa	12 14 15
Corn	12 14 15
Custard	12 14 15
Dates	12 14 15
Fig	12 14 15
Grape	12 14 15
Guava	12 14 15
Honeydew	12 14 15
Kumquat	12 14 15
Lemon	12 14 15
Lime	12 14 15
Mango	12 14 15
Marionberry	12 14 15
Medlar	12 14 15
Nectarine	12 14 15
Orange	12 14 15
Peach	12 14 15
Pineapple	12 14 15
Pistachio	12 14 15
Plum	12 14 15
Raspberry	12 14 15
Rhubarb	12 14 15
Sapota	12 14 15
Strawberry	12 14 15
Tangerine	12 14 15
Ugli Fruit	12 14 15
Vanilla	12 14 15
Walnut	12 14 15
Watermelon	12 14 15
Yam	12 14 15

Almond	12 14 15
Apricot	12 14 15
Apple	12 14 15
Banana	12 14 15
Blackberry	12 14 15
Blueberry	12 14 15
Bran	12 14 15
Bread	12 14 15
Buckwheat	12 14 15
Cashew	12 14 15
Cherry	12 14 15
Chestnut	12 14 15
Cocoa	12 14 15
Corn	12 14 15
Custard	12 14 15
Dates	12 14 15
Fig	12 14 15
Grape	12 14 15
Guava	12 14 15
Honeydew	12 14 15
Kumquat	12 14 15
Lemon	12 14 15
Lime	12 14 15
Mango	12 14 15
Marionberry	12 14 15
Medlar	12 14 15
Nectarine	12 14 15
Orange	12 14 15
Peach	12 14 15
Pineapple	12 14 15
Pistachio	12 14 15
Plum	12 14 15
Raspberry	12 14 15
Rhubarb	12 14 15
Sapota	12 14 15
Strawberry	12 14 15
Tangerine	12 14 15
Ugli Fruit	12 14 15
Vanilla	12 14 15
Walnut	12 14 15
Watermelon	12 14 15
Yam	12 14 15

Almond	12 14 15
Apricot	12 14 15
Apple	12 14 15
Banana	12 14 15
Blackberry	12 14 15
Blueberry	12 14 15
Bran	12 14 15
Bread	12 14 15
Buckwheat	12 14 15
Cashew	12 14 15
Cherry	12 14 15
Chestnut	12 14 15
Cocoa	12 14 15
Corn	12 14 15
Custard	12 14 15
Dates	12 14 15
Fig	12 14 15
Grape	12 14 15
Guava	12 14 15
Honeydew	12 14 15
Kumquat	12 14 15
Lemon	12 14 15
Lime	12 14 15
Mango	12 14 15
Marionberry	12 14 15
Medlar	12 14 15
Nectarine	12 14 15
Orange	12 14 15
Peach	12 14 15
Pineapple	12 14 15
Pistachio	12 14 15
Plum	12 14 15
Raspberry	12 14 15
Rhubarb	12 14 15
Sapota	12 14 15
Strawberry	12 14 15
Tangerine	12 14 15
Ugli Fruit	12 14 15
Vanilla	12 14 15
Walnut	12 14 15
Watermelon	12 14 15
Yam	12 14 15

C. F. T. R. I. LIBRARY, MYSORE.

Acc. No. 1938

Call No. F85,3 J1

F8,3 NSI

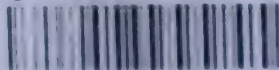
D.V.C.N
20/6/80

Please return this publication on or before the last DUE DATE stamped below to avoid incurring overdue charges.

P. No.	Due Date	Return date
—	1/5/69 25/3/69	22/3/69
—	6.8.77	4.8.77

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH AND EMPIRE

CFTRI-MYSORE



1938

Food from the cc



